

THE ROLE OF SOCIAL CAPITAL IN ORGANIZATIONS: THE PRECURSORS
AND EFFECTS OF SOCIAL CAPITAL AMONG CERTIFIED
NURSE AIDES IN NURSING HOMES

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The role of social capital in forming organizational commitment is the focus of this research. Organizational social capital is the idea that social relationships have value in the organization. The theoretical framework is based on Kanter's (1993) structure of organizational commitment. This research views the structure within organizations based on global empowerment, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and social capital. In addition, the role that race, income, and education affect the organizational structure is also taken into account.

The organizational configuration was assembled using a structural equation model with latent variables employing a sample of 235 certified nurse aides. The sample was collected from 10 nursing homes in the Dallas-Ft.Worth metropolitan area. It was expected that Kanter's general format is reestablished within the sample. In fact, the study found that empowerment significantly influences job satisfaction. In turn, job satisfaction does foster organizational commitment. Although Kanter's original thesis was supported in this analysis, it was also determined that social capital plays a significant mediating role in creating organizational commitment. Furthermore, this research indicates that social capital alone can create organizational commitment. Thus, in conclusion, this research builds on Kanter's original idea and argues that organizational commitment is based on job satisfaction, global empowerment, and social capital.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

The objective of this study is to understand the causes and effects of social capital within the organization. Most theorists in the field agree on a general definition of social capital which is the “norms and networks that enable people to act collectively” (Woolcock and Narayan, pg.3, 2000). Social capital has the ability to bind individuals of varying backgrounds together into a single cohesive unit. Furthermore, social capital allows individuals to establish a greater sense of commitment to the organization by embedding the individual within a web of social relations. Recent studies have coined the term ‘organizational social capital’, however it should be noted that this term does not change how social capital is defined; rather it merely specifies the location of the interactions (Cohen & Prusak, 2001; Hodson, 2005). Throughout this study the phrases ‘organizational social capital’ and ‘social capital in organizations’ will be used interchangeably and should be viewed synonymously. A definition of how social capital is viewed in the organization is as follows:

Social capital consists of the stock of active connections among people: the trust, mutual understanding, and shared values and behaviors that bind the members of human networks and communities and make cooperative action possible. (Cohen & Prusak, 2001, p. 4)

Social capital is important in organizations literature because through creating strong social ties between individuals and the organization, organizational commitment is enhanced. The framework of the organization, which will be examined here, is based on Kanter’s foundational analysis of the structure of organizations and organizational commitment. Several studies (Beaulieu, Shamian, Donner, & Pringle, 1997; McDermott,

Laschinger, & Shamian, 1996; Wilson & Laschinger, 1994) have validated Kanter's (1993) theory on organizational empowerment. Briefly, Kanter's theory posits that an individual who is empowered is more likely to be committed to the organization. Commitment to the organization is fostered through job satisfaction. Furthermore, as a worker becomes empowered she or he is more likely to be satisfied on the job. Thus, commitment, as defined by Kanter (1993), is largely influenced by empowerment and job satisfaction. Although research confirms the relationship between empowerment and commitment, little is known about the mediating role of social capital. One of the key purposes of this study is to determine whether or not social capital enables organizational commitment. Are those with stronger social capital more likely to be committed to the organization?

Charles Perrow (1986), in *Complex Organizations*, criticized the lack of development in organizational theory for current day bureaucratic organizations. He stated that little has changed since Taylorism first began, and although profit is the bottom line it is at the expense of the worker. Taylorism is a managerial tool used to increase production by instating a task-oriented, assembly line production system (Perrow, 1986). Perrow (1986) argued that the only motivating factor under Taylorism was money which is not conducive to human relations. He posits that humans come second to profit and product-oriented production or Taylorism (Perrow, 1986). Semi-professionals such as nurses, police, and technicians tend to give the most in terms of human capital and receive the least financial reward for their work (Henricksson, Wrede, & Burau, 2006). Today, especially among nurses, commitment is extremely low and subsequently, turnover rates are high (Kaye & Jordan-Evans, 2001). The process of

Taylorism and profit-driven production damages the organization, its customers, and the worker.

In addition to Taylorism being utilized as a profit maximizing tool, it was also a method management used to deskill the worker. Taylorism distributed work into piecemeal production lines. The workers no longer had control over their craft or their product. Through this deskilling, workers no longer learned how to produce an entire product rather they learned how to put a single bolt on a nut and their attachment to the product, as well as their knowledge in the craft, decreased making the worker less valuable on the job market. As a worker on the job market who has spent years in a deskilled, Taylorized factory, he or she has very little to offer a subsequent employer. Any worker may be able to put a single nut on a bolt but few workers have the ability and knowledge to construct an entire bicycle. Taylorism strips the worker of knowledge and also the freedom in being marketable to another company.

At this point in organizational history, workers are removed from their product, labor, organization, coworkers, even customers. Workers can no longer rely on a permanent position or relationship with a single organization. Today contingent work, or hourly, contract, and part-time positions are becoming the foundation of the service industry. Despite the changes in the economy that foster contingent work, are there ways that organizations can promote organizational commitment?

This study argues that organizational commitment can be cultivated with the seeds of social capital. Unlike other organizational factors such as job satisfaction, which are influenced by tangible issues controlled by the organization and its management practices, social capital can be influenced by organizational practices but

is ultimately controlled by the worker. However, not until more is known about the role of social capital in the organization will sociological theory be able to reconnect the worker to his or her output, organization, and social community of fellow workers.

Finally, to analyze the mediating role of social capital in organizations a structural equation model (SEM) is constructed. A SEM is utilized to properly illustrate the roles between the major factors influencing job (organizational) commitment as defined by Kanter. Data for this analysis were collected from Certified Nurse Aides (CNAs) at ten nursing homes in the Dallas-Ft.Worth metropolitan area. In this analysis the nursing home setting acts as a control variable which is held constant in gauging social capital. Previous studies, which will be discussed later, measure social capital based on individuals of varying backgrounds. The nursing home setting functions as a common denominator, which all individuals in this setting share. This avenue of research is unique to the field of social capital and is an attempt to accurately show the structure and foundation of social capital within a single organizational typology.

Significance

This study has the unique capability of filling in a major gap in organizational and social capital literature. Up to this point, social capital literature has focused on many different individuals' social capital from varying backgrounds. No known literature exists which tries to hold constant the role in the organization while examining social capital.

Furthermore, over a quarter of a century has passed since Kanter's theory on organizational empowerment was first published. Since then, her theory has been validated repeatedly focusing on the nursing occupation. However, at this time no

known literature has focused on the informal power Kanter describes as influencing empowerment.

Therefore, by examining the pattern of commitment in a single occupational type, this study will fill a distinctive role in social capital and organizational literature. Through blending the areas of social capital and organizations, this study aims to clarify the role of social capital in organizational commitment, an important aspect within the sociology of organizations literature.

The Sociological Background of Social Capital

Although the terms today are slightly different, sociologists, since their conception, have been interested in social capital. Marx focused on an economic, class-based analysis which separated those with social capital from those without. A class-in-itself was merely an economic group of exploited workers. Yet, as termed by Marx, a class-for-itself became a mobilized, activated class of aware workers. One of the main distinctions between these groups was social cohesion or social capital. The theory of social capital is also largely tied to Durkheim's ideas of social integration. Social capital was also utilized as a tool to end the class based society Marx revealed. 'Workers of the world unite' was a revolutionary call to the world that social capital was needed to force change before its time (Marx & Engels, 1888). Despite these deep roots, contemporary social capital has slightly different advantages that could only transpire over time. It is no surprise that sociologists have emphasized the effects of belonging, cohesion, and community in the course of their study.

Though not synonymous, Durkheim's thesis on social integration laid the foundation for the developing area of social capital. As cited in historical perspectives of social capital, Durkheim's view of social integration is extremely similar to contemporary views of social capital. In *Suicide*, Durkheim (1897) completed a quantitative study of the protective effects of social integration. He discovered that group cohesion could ward off the detrimental effects of anomie. Belonging to a group, society, or community allows an individual to be a part of something bigger than oneself. Durkheim argued that social integration ties and integrates individuals into the forces of society such as norms, mores, and shared values. Without shared reference points in life, an individual risks falling to one's own secluded demise.

Regardless of the fears of anomie, theorists such as Bellah (1967) have argued for the necessity of a civil religion. Characteristics of civil religion remind individuals of their commonality. Bellah established that society is comprised of keystones and road maps that teach and perpetuate the need to belong in a particular society. He suggests that society creates and reinforces a civil religion, which is benchmarked by symbols, martyrs, songs, landmarks, and constitutions.

Social capital is unique from the views of Durkheim and Bellah in that it combines both aspects. It merges the theoretical essence of social integration with the tangible realities present in Bellah's observations. Portes (1998) notes two specific innovations in these theories which make social capital distinctive. First, social capital typically focuses on the positive effects of social inclusion. Theorists such as Putnam (2000) and Coleman (1988), both key figures in social capital theory, focus on the advantageous properties of increased social capital. Within a familial framework, Coleman (1988)

argues that the social capital of parents endorses the educational development of their children. In a pervasive effort to understand the role of social capital in America, Putnam (2000) posits that increased social capital has the ability to defend against crime, increase the health of the nation, and reduce homelessness and joblessness, etc.

Second, Portes (1998) notes that contemporary social capital differs from social integration in its verbiage. Although this distinction may appear trivial, the growth of social capital theory in recent years proves it is not. Viewing social integration as a form of capital allows researchers, institutes, and policy-makers to understand the essence and value of community in the expansive conceptual framework of capital. In this embodiment, the shift from social integration to social capital allows for the consideration that non-financial forms of assets can be equally influential in the markets of capital (human, financial, etc.). Simply, social capital itself becomes competitive in other markets. The act of this transformation opens up avenues that have been incorporated by public health, anthropological, psychological, and political forums, to name a few. Thus the social capital sector does not divorce itself from its birthplace rather it aims to enrich its livelihood. Over the past 20 years, social capital has seen many transformations and the development of a field is underway. In its development social capital has sprouted perspectives which are discussed in the following section.

A Theoretical Analysis of Social Capital

The growing field of social capital is often seen as unorganized and scattered. This conclusion is drawn in part because the field of social capital is still in its infancy. However, to better organize the field, Woolcock and Narayan (2000) have

compartmentalized social capital into four varying perspectives. The four perspectives (elaborated below) are: Communitarian, Networks, Institutional, and Synergy. Each of these perspectives implements social capital in a different fashion, yet still retains the basic concept of what is commonly agreed upon as social capital.

As noted by Portes (1998), this view of social capital allows research to focus on how social capital is created. Focusing on the creation of social capital allows for the recognition of varying characteristics within the individual, group, and society which create and sustain social capital.

The Communitarian View

The communitarian view of social capital focuses on the number of gatherings, groups, and associations within a community or defined area. Theorists of this view tend to highlight the importance of associations and are mainly interested in the positive aspects that the associations have on the community. This view parallels Etzioni's (2004) groundbreaking work on the communitarian movement. Etzioni argued that societies are most effective when there is a strong sense of shared goals and behaviors. Similar to Etzioni, the communitarian view of social capital states that society is stronger when individuals become heavily involved in their communities. The overlapping, and shared sense of community is the focal strength to the communitarian view. A major flaw in this perspective is that the negative side of social capital is rarely addressed (Portes and Landolt, 1996).

Narayan and Shah (2000) suggest that many racial or class inequalities are maintained by the negative aspects of social capital. Rubio (1997) refers to the negative

side of social capital as “perverse” social capital. Perverse social capital stifles the development and communal networking that strengthens a community. It creates divisions in society by labeling and segregating people into discrete groups. Examples of perverse social capital include gangs, drug cartels, and many organized crime groups. Though each of these groups is commonly thought of as negative influences on society, perverse social capital can also be embedded among the elites in a community when they become isolated and untouchable by the rest of the society. Regardless of the amount of money or status in society, these groups are characterized by maintaining the polarization in a community while oppressing social interaction between those of differing backgrounds. For example, children of high socioeconomic status families entered in private schools blocks them from integrating with all types of children.

The Networks View

The networks view of social capital is slightly different than the communitarian view. This view is built from Granovetter’s (1973) influential analysis on the strength of weak ties in a community. Granovetter illustrated the point that social connections with others create a web or network of resources. He argued that ties between individuals are based on the emotional intensity of the relationship, amount of time spent together, intimacy shared, and reciprocating actions established by each actor. Furthermore, Granovetter posited that each type of tie engages individuals in social cohesion and allows for people to gain access to social avenues that were previously unattainable. Granovetter set forth the idea that there are basically two types of ties; ‘strong’ ties allow

people to identify who they are, while 'weak' ties help anchor individuals to others in the community. An example of strong ties is the relationships that exist within a family unit. While an example of weak ties is the relationships that exist in the workplace, especially those that may cross departments.

Furthermore, 'weak' ties are functional in inter-community connections because they cross social strata. 'Strong' ties are valuable in intra-community connections and work to isolate and strengthen a common identity.

Unlike the communitarian view, the networks view focuses on both the positive and negative aspects of social capital. It is important to analyze social capital as it is built among people of certain characteristics; however it is equally important to view how social capital is built among associations that cross demographics.

Within this view there are two common themes. The first theme is the idea that social capital is both problematic and beneficial. It is advantageous because it offers individuals a wide range of services in a community and helps to create a web of support for the individual. However, social capital can be negative when offering support becomes an unwanted commitment or obligation for the giver. Portes and Sensenbrenner (1993) term the unwelcomed obligation felt by individuals as the cost of social capital. When the cost outweighs the benefits, social capital can become a negative burden to an individual, association, or community. Portes and Sensenbrenner (1993) refer to the case of affluent Asian immigrants who changed their given names to common American names. Asian immigrants made this step to support consequent cohorts in their transition.

The second theme outlined in this view is the idea that the positive creation of social capital for one group may come at a negative expense of another group. This form of social capital can be illustrated in the creation of segregation and ostracism. For example, when people of a common thread bond together it is often exclusionary towards those of different characteristics. While the social capital that is formed among those of a particular attribute is positive in that it enhances group solidarity, it often has negative outcomes for those not belonging to the group. Namely, the source of social capital should be viewed as a separate compartment of social capital than the consequences of it.

The greatest contribution of theorists pertaining to this view of social capital has focused on bridging versus bonding social capital (Putnam, 2000). The role of bridging and bonding social capital enhances Granovetter's (1973) idea of weak ties. Granovetter argued that the weak ties individuals create with each other are more beneficial than strong ties. However, social capital research posits that both weak and strong ties are crucial to forming relationships. Social capital theory argues that the characteristics of individuals involved in bridging social capital tend to be heterogeneous. However, the attributes of individuals engaged in bonding social capital are homogeneous. Additionally, bridging social capital is similar to what Granovetter referred to as 'weak ties'. This is true in that relationships formed under this type of social capital tend to have fewer shared qualities and thus a weaker foundation. Whereas, bonding social capital is comparable to 'strong ties'. Bonding social capital allows individuals to bond within a common demographic. Both are instrumental in creating general social capital. Social capital research deviates from Granovetter's

theory because it is argued that social capital must be viewed through these two components as a means to fully view how social capital is created and who or what the social capital affects.

The Institutional View

The institutional view of social capital posits that social capital is formed through the political, legal, and institutional environment of a community. The previous views identified social capital as a product of the individual and believed that social capital was born from individual will and decisions. This view identifies social capital as limited to the quality of the surrounding institutions which largely creates the social atmosphere (North, 1990).

Research undertaken in this view has followed two paths. The first path, headed by Skocpol (1995, 1996), posits that the state has the ability to hinder or promote civil society or generalized social capital. The second path separates civil and government social capital. This path posits that when a state has high marks in “rule of law”, “generalized trust”, “bureaucratic quality”, and “civil liberties”, then social capital values also tend to be high. However, a state that has weak institutions and political rights also tends to have low levels of social capital and high levels of social isolation among its people (Collier and Gunning, 1999).

The institutional view focuses on the macro perspective of social capital. This view suggests that social capital can be affected by the level of development of the state and its policies. However, because the focus of this view is limited to a macro perspective, the weakness of this view is that it does not take into account micro

interactions. Micro interactions between individuals in a sub-group within the state may be so far removed from the state and its policies that state policy has no effect on its people.

The Synergy View

The final view is composed of a mixture between the institutional and network views. The synergy view posits that professional/political and civil relationships are needed within the state to foster social capital for the people.

This view identifies three key characteristics. First, groups (civic groups, governments, or corporations) are not inherently good or bad. Rather, each of these groups is judged based on whether or not they encourage collective goals (Woolcock & Narayan, 2000). The second proposition is that no one group has the sole ability to promote social development. Finally, the synergy view affirms that the state's position is the most important and influential in creating and sustaining social capital and civil society.

The synergy view identifies the state, corporations, and civic groups as each having the ability to foster social capital (Uphoff, 1992). Like the institutional view, the higher level of development within the state, the more social capital its people will have. Social capital also has the ability to foster development as momentum builds. This view identifies social capital as being a tool of the state for the people. Social capital is formed by the collaboration of firms, states, and civic groups (Isham, Narayan, & Pritchett, 1995).

Each of the four views of social capital has the ability when combined to illustrate a multi-dimensional aspect for society, state, and civic properties. Individually, each view upholds the importance of social capital as it is a tool for society and the individual. Whether social capital is viewed as an individual or communal commodity when summed the results are the same. Social capital is built on the cooperation of two or more individuals. The cooperation that is established by two actors has the ability to influence the production and development of a nation-state. Theoretically, different issues are better analyzed by one or more views of social capital. For the analysis on the use of social capital in social organizations, the networks view will be utilized.

The networks view is employed in this analysis because social capital is recognized as a positive, community building tool; while the negative affects of social capital can also be taken into account. It should be noted that the networks view was chosen over the communitarian view because social capital as understood in this study has both negative and positive aspects. This study measures the positive aspects of social capital in the organization; however, it also posits the possible negative outcomes to social capital. It is believed that the networks view approach allows for a more comprehensive and plausible take on organizational social capital. As argued earlier, the networks view allows for the positive creation of social capital among one group to have negative effects among another group or the institution at large. One of the areas that people are brought together and must organize and function fluidly is in social organizations such as the workplace. The utilization of the networks view in the workplace allows for the study of social capital creation among CNAs and how it negatively or positively affects commitment to the organization.

Social Capital and the Workplace

Networking Theory

It would be remiss to discuss the role of social capital in organizations without examining the utility of networking theory. Networking theory in organizations literature first implemented the idea of social capital in organizations. Networking theory argues that there are two main components to social life. There are actors and connectors in every social setting or organization (Perrow, 1986). Networking theory recognizes that the number of connectors between actors can be calculated in the formation of social capital.

Furthermore, as previously noted, Granovetter (1982) argued that the connections or ties between individuals are important for succeeding in organizations. Specifically, Granovetter notes that weak ties can be more important in organizations than strong ties. Weak ties can be illustrated in many first-name associations; these relationships are sparser and acquaintance-based. This speaks to the adage of 'who you know is more important than what you know'. Weak ties allow actors to access resources that otherwise would have been off limits to them. In organizations, Granovetter notes that getting hired or promoted is often influenced by the social networks one acquires.

C. Wright Mills (1956) elaborated on the notion and importance of social ties in his work the *Power Elite*. Mills argues that the resources in society are held by a few key individuals. These actors often overlap one another in the top industries; which in effect limits the decision-making and power potential in society. Mills argues that society is controlled by an exclusive elite group of individuals who are fixed at the pinnacle of

the military industrial complex (MIC). The MIC is the triangulation of the military, industry or corporations, and the government.

The role of social capital within organizations is rooted in network theory through the illustrations of networking theory, weak ties, and the MIC. The role of social capital is to link or create connectors between individuals. Individuals invest in social relationships because they can benefit from them. Lin (1999) posits that there are four elements an actor can attain through networking; these are: information, influence, social credentials, and reinforcement. As with network theories, an actor with more connectors has the advantage of accessing more information and opportunity than does an actor with fewer connections. Likewise, an actor who has social ties to another, especially in a hierarchically advantageous position, has the benefit of influencing another's decisions. These decisions in an organization could be hiring, firing, or promotion practices. Next, social ties to another have the ability to front as social credentials for the individual in question. For example, knowing the boss is beneficial to any actor walking into a job interview. Finally, Lin (1999) argues that social ties can act as reinforcement for an individual's voice and ideas. Those with reinforcement have a shared identity that is acknowledged by another.

In summary, social capital could not be fully appreciated without understanding its roots in network theory. Network theory is extremely prevalent when social capital is viewed in the organization where organizational status is often related to one's social ties. It should be noted and emphasized that social networks are not just useful within a single organization but across different organizations as is presented in Mills's military

industrial complex. However, the analysis presented here is focused on the role of social capital, or the benefit from social ties, within a single organizational typology.

Social Capital in the Organization

Although there is little research on social capital in organizations, recently a few studies have been published which aim to empirically identify the role of organizational social capital (Danchev, 2006; Fussell, Harrison-Rexrode, Kennan, & Hazleton, 2006; Hodson, 2005; Oh, Labianca, & Chung, 2006). Repeatedly, these studies argue that organizations with enhanced levels of social capital report better workplace dynamics including increased worker satisfaction, a more sustainable working environment, better group effectiveness, and overall, increased organizational outcomes. For example, Oh, Labianca, and Chung (2006) illustrate that social capital is influential in the workplace because it increases the flow of organizational resources such as information sharing and political networking within the organization. Social capital allows for the exchange of information which eases the difficulty of competition inherent in organizations. Oh, Labianca, and Chung (2006) also argue that organizational social capital is necessary to build a more effective workplace.

In addition to the above mentioned study, Fussell, Harrison-Rexrode, Kennan, and Hazleton (2006) identify trust as the key component in social capital which allows for a more sustainable working environment. As part of this study the researchers also recognized that with increased social capital, the organization tends to reduce negative transactional costs. Examples of negative transactional costs include: in-group fighting, wasted time, and an inability to work across departments for a common goal. Fussell et

al. (2006) also comes to the conclusion that organizational social capital allows for a more fluid working environment and has the ability to quell conflict by creating a foundation for social dialogue and trust.

Finally, Danchev (2006) and Hodson (2005) posit that social capital can be fostered through informal networks within the organization. Hodson (2005) specifically underscores the importance of management behavior. He argues that management has the ability to instill a sense of goodwill within the organization by reinforcing a team spirit and supportive attitude. Both researchers come to the conclusion that increased social capital creates a more hospitable working environment.

While the potential affects of social capital are beginning to be examined, this study aims at expanding the scope of how organizational social capital is framed by the larger organizational structure. Unlike previous studies, this research arranges social capital within the context of other key organizational concepts such as job satisfaction, empowerment, and organizational commitment.

In this analysis, it is posited that social capital engages in a reciprocal feedback loop with empowerment and job satisfaction. In part, social capital has the ability to mediate the connection between job satisfaction, global empowerment, and organizational commitment. Furthermore, the accumulation of social capital can also influence job satisfaction and empowerment. This reciprocating feedback loop helps to empower the workers within the organization. Studies indicate that semi-professionals, or those in the welfare service industry such as nursing, tend to have strong ties to their coworkers (Henriksson, Wrede, & Burau, 2006). The relationships that are created

among coworkers form social capital. Social capital has the ability to connect individuals to each other, and through this connection, to the organization.

Bryant and Perkins (1982) illustrate that the relationships formed at work can also influence an individual's level of job satisfaction and commitment. In their literature it was established that job satisfaction had little to do with the tasks or treatment of the workers but instead was based on their social relationships in the workplace. It should be noted that social capital is just one area within organizations that can mitigate the effects of weak job satisfaction, empowerment, and organizational commitment. The stronger an employee is tied to her or his coworkers the more social capital one has and the more likely one is to be committed to the organization.

However, most research focuses on how social capital is attained, or constrained, within the social institution. Lin (2001) indicates that social capital is based on one's location in a hierarchical structure. Limitations of constructing and sustaining social capital are limited to the position one holds in the organization.

Furthermore, Lin (2001) states that the higher one's social position in the organization, the more opportunities one will have for building social capital. Research suggests that this concept is true even after controlling for status-attainment variables such as education and first-status job. The hierarchical structure in nursing homes, which is taken into account in this study, is constructed of three tiers of workers. At the apex is the management strata, which includes the administrators and director of nursing. Just below this tier are the supervisors, who are made up of the registered nursing staff. At the lowest level in the structure are the CNAs. According to Lin, the

administrators have the most beneficial position for attaining social capital while the CNAs are in the most disadvantaged position.

As mentioned earlier, bridging social capital or weak ties is an important aspect of social capital theory. Weak ties allow individuals to cross demographic statuses and build bridges with those who are unlike themselves. Yet, Burt (1992; 1997) argues that it is not necessary that an individual build these bridges but that they know someone who has the bridges already built. Lin, Ensel, and Vaughn (1981) assert that there is a ceiling effect pertaining to bridging social capital. There is little advantage to those at the top of the hierarchy building bridges because bridging social capital infers that an individual cross status position. Crossing status position for those at the top means downward mobility. Those under top position holders have less to offer in terms of resources than do those who are at an equal level.

Thus, individuals at the bottom of the hierarchy (such as certified nurse aides in nursing home facilities) have the most to gain from bridging social capital. Building bridges allows an individual to make allies with another who can help her or him attain the resources one needs to succeed. Finally, as Burt (1992) notes, as one builds more social capital and becomes more connected with others in the social organization, one also becomes more embedded in the organization itself.

The next section describes the current concepts used in organizational practice to measure embeddedness. One way of gauging how tied a worker is to the organization is to measure the worker's level of organizational commitment.

Kanter's Structural Theory of Organizational Empowerment

In a widely applied theory, Kanter (1993) constructed a model that organized the composition of the workplace. She posits that the structure of an organization is associated with worker behavior and attitudes. Furthermore, Kanter asserts that perceived access to power and opportunity corresponds with worker behavior and attitudes. Kanter suggests that worker behavior and attitudes can be altered through reorganizing structural constraints. Some ways of increasing worker commitment are through elevating job satisfaction and empowerment levels.

Kanter (1993) posits that empowerment within the organization is associated with the degree of formal and informal power a person has. Formal power is a derivative of jobs that allow for creativity, visibility, and flexibility. Informal power is derived from networks and relationships with peers, subordinates, and supervisors within the organization. Informal power is embodied in social capital theory. Both spotlight the importance of social relations within the organization as a means of empowerment and commitment.

A number of studies have examined the framework of Kanter's theory on the relationship between empowerment and commitment (Beaulieu et al., 1997; Chandler, 1987; Finegan & Laschinger, 2001; Goddard & Laschinger, 1997; Haugh & Laschinger, 1996; Kutzscher, Sabiston, Laschinger, & Nish, 1997; Laschinger & Havens, 1997; Laschinger, Finegan, Shamian, & Casier, 2000; Laschinger, Finegan, & Shamian, 2001; Laschinger & Havens, 1996; Laschinger & Shamian, 1994; Laschinger & Wong, 1999; McDermott et al., 1996; Miller, Goddard, & Laschinger, 2001; Sabiston & Laschinger, 1995; Sarmiento, Laschinger, & Iwasiw, 2004; Stewart, 2004; Wilson & Laschinger,

1994). These studies suggest that organizational commitment is stronger when a worker is empowered. In turn, the more committed an individual is to the organization the more likely they will be empowered. Thus, the relationship becomes symbiotic and reciprocal.

Kanter hypothesizes that informal power, or the relationships within the workplace, are influential in building empowerment. However, there are no studies which examine the distinction between the role of formal and informal power in an organizational setting (Nedd, 2006). Although, many factors may influence organizational commitment or intentions of quitting, this analysis will focus on the role of informal power or social capital in the organization. It is hypothesized that social capital, or informal power described by Kanter, has a reciprocal relationship with empowerment. Furthermore, empowerment increases job satisfaction which has a positive effect on organizational commitment.

Organizational Commitment

Varying definitions surround the idea of organizational commitment. However, in general it can be defined as an attitudinal attachment to the organization and its goals (Porter, Mowday, Steers, & Boulian, 1974). As noted in subsequent sections, a committed employee is more likely to stay with the organization, have less absenteeism, tardiness, and increased satisfaction (Ashman & Winstanley, 2006).

The interest in the field surrounding organizational commitment is in part due to the multiple connections that commitment has shown to other areas within organizations. Previous studies report that commitment is associated with employee

behavior such as turnover and absenteeism (Angle & Perry, 1981; Farrell & Rusbult, 1981). Other studies argue that personal characteristics such as length of employment, pay, education, and age are correlated with organizational commitment (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Steers, 1977). This study focuses on organizational or job commitment as it is related to job satisfaction, empowerment, and, more importantly, social capital.

Organizational commitment plays a dominant role in reducing the likelihood that a worker will quit. As a worker begins to self-identify with the organization, she or he takes on the attributes or values of the organization (Freund, 2005). This process embeds the individual into the organization's culture. Workers who have high levels of organizational commitment are also more likely to uphold the goals of the organization (Dunham, Grube, & Castenada, 1994). Correspondingly, workers who identify with the organization and are committed to it are less likely to seek employment elsewhere; thus retention rate increases (Farrel & Rusbult, 1981). In this study, intent to quit refers to the perception of the individual respondent leaving, not the perception of whether or not other people are leaving the organization.

Additionally, researchers have asserted that there are two forms of organizational commitment (Becker, 1960). One form is attitudinal commitment whereby individuals remain a part of the organization because they want to. The other form is calculative commitment where individuals continue employment because they feel they need to. Additional findings indicate there is an inverse relationship between organizational commitment and intent to quit, regardless of the type of commitment (Angle & Perry, 1981; Steers, 1977).

Within the CNA population, research also reveals that a lack of organizational commitment leads to high turnover rates within the nursing home (Kiyak, Namazi, & Kahana, 1997). However, this data exposes some interesting assertions among the CNA population itself. For instance, Castle (2005) found that the rate of CNA turnover in nursing homes is often influenced by the rate of management turnover. Thus, when managers have higher turnover rates, the CNAs become less committed to the organization and often follow suit. Another study by Castle and Engberg (2006) indicates that low staffing levels and high bed size in the organization result in low organizational commitment and high turnover by the CNAs. In line with these findings, Wallace and Brubaker (1984) found that CNAs who were older with dependents living in the area tended to be more committed to the organization.

Job Satisfaction

Another factor that can influence job commitment and intent to quit is job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is referred to in organizational literature as the affective, or emotional, impression a worker has for her or his job. The debate about job satisfaction is centered on whether or not job satisfaction has single or multiple dimensions. Porter and Lawler (1968) posit that job satisfaction has a single dimension whereby individuals have either positive or negative attitudes toward their job. However, Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969) state that job satisfaction has many dimensions. A worker may be satisfied with her or his boss but not with one's pay. This study is based on Porter and Lawler's approach.

It is important to note here that although issues such as pay, security, work atmosphere, and the actual type of work have the ability to interfere with job satisfaction, other social issues may intervene. This is exemplified in a study by Bryant and Perkins (1982) which argues that even in some of the worst labor conditions, job satisfaction can be mediated by coworker relations. The researchers conducted a study of workers in a chicken poultry processing plant. They found that many of the workers were dissatisfied with the speed of productivity and conditions of the plant. However, when asked to rate their level of job satisfaction workers generally conveyed positive responses. Respondents reported satisfaction at work due to their social ties with other workers. Thus, despite dismal conditions, strong social relationships at work can rebuild overall job satisfaction.

Furthermore, as addressed in Locke's (1976) landmark study on organizations, he finds that high levels of job satisfaction can offset issues of absenteeism, turnover, high stress, and low commitment. In a more recent study by Freund (2005), job satisfaction was found to be the most important influence on predicting job retention. Freund argues that an unsatisfied worker becomes increasingly less committed to the organization as time passes. Dissatisfaction can derive from: poor working relations, changes in the organizational structure, organizational crises, or an inability to fulfill personal or professional expectations (Blood, 1969). Alternatively, satisfied workers who feel fulfilled professionally, have an opportunity to improve, are given adequate support, and whose personal goals fit the goals of the organization tend to stay in the organization. These workers tend to commit themselves to their jobs and the

organization. Additionally, they also tend to contribute and invest their personal skills in the institution (Bussing, 1999).

Moreover, this was also found to be true among the CNA population. D'Eramo, Papp, and Rose (2001) posit that CNAs do not receive adequate support at work. It is argued that CNAs a lack of management interest in their personal goals results in depleted levels of job satisfaction. To increase job satisfaction, the researchers conclude that the organization should implement career planning strategies to aid CNAs on their career path. Within the literature on CNAs, it is also argued that highly satisfied workers are better able to provide for their patients (Pennington, Scott, & Magilvy; 2003). In part, better care is established by reducing the high turnover rates among CNAs. Previous studies argue that increasing a workers' level of job satisfaction results in higher retention rates and thus better care for NH residents (Kash, Castle, Naufal, & Hawes, 2006; Mesirow, Klopp, & Olson, 1998).

Global Empowerment

Research indicates that empowerment is related to effectiveness (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999). However, empowerment is more than a single construct. Kirkman and Rosen argue that it can be divided into four branches: potency, meaningfulness, autonomy, and impact.

The first part of empowerment is potency; a sense of potency refers to the individual maintaining a belief in oneself. Potency or confidence is shown in individuals who are aware of their abilities. The next branch of empowerment refers to retaining a sense of meaningfulness. Kirkman and Rosen (1999) refer to this as having a sense of

purpose. Workers who have a sense of meaningfulness also have an understanding and belief in the work they are doing. Workers also tend to place an intrinsic value to their work. Thirdly, a sense of autonomy refers to the liberty that workers need to be in control of their immediate workspace. Workers must have the control and opportunity to make decisions without the approval of management. Finally, empowerment includes a sense of impact. Sense of impact indicates workers are able to see the effect of their work.

In summation, for workers to feel empowered they must be able to see the change they are producing and get feedback for their labor. Workers must also feel potency or confidence in their abilities, be committed to the work they are doing, and believe that they have the autonomy to make decisions that directly effect them.

Furthermore, a study by Laschinger and Finegan (2004) states that empowerment has the ability to protect a worker from the negative interactions that commonly occur in the workplace. Research reveals that empowerment can be especially useful in organizations that are downsizing. Laschinger and Finegan argue that structural empowerment involves accesses to either formal or informal lines of power. Additionally, structural empowerment has the advantage of increasing an individual's empowerment which aides the worker in buffering the negative effects of downsizing, poor communication, and conflict (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998; Laschinger et al., 2001).

Research involving the CNA population argues that empowerment can be increased when CNAs are given more responsibility within a teamwork approach, taught communication skills, and given higher rewards. First, Barry, Brannon, and Mor (2005)

argue that CNAs who are rewarded more frequently tend to feel more empowered than those who are not rewarded. In their study, the researchers considered both financial and social rewards. In each case an increase in empowerment resulted in higher retention rates among the CNAs. Furthermore, other research posits that empowerment can be developed by allowing CNAs more responsibility in the organization through a teamwork approach (Qamar, 1996). CNAs working as a team feel a sense of belonging and decision making ability within their limited roles. Finally, Hoffman (1996) finds that on the job training in soft skills such as people or communication skills allow the CNAs to communicate more effectively. The increased communication leads to a higher quality of life for the CNAs, and thus, the CNAs are more empowered on the job and less likely to leave prematurely.

Several studies have also revealed that it is reasonable to expect that when a worker is satisfied s/he is more likely to feel empowered (e.g., Laschinger et al., 2001). Additionally, as workers become increasingly empowered they build stronger bonds with the organization (Laschinger et al., 2001). As noted above, increased levels of organizational commitment lead to increases in retention rates.

In summary, social capital is correlated with social embeddedness. The stronger an individual's ties to others within the organization, the more likely an individual will be committed to the organization. Reciprocally, the more an individual becomes embedded in the organization and its culture, the more social capital is built. Previous research, as noted above, has found that empowerment increases job satisfaction and organizational commitment. One component of this analysis is to study the consequence that social capital has on empowerment, job satisfaction, and commitment.

Summary, Presentation of Hypotheses, and Conceptual Model

Summary

To summarize, research suggests that there are many factors at play in the organization. The focus of this study is to understand the role of empowerment and job satisfaction in establishing social capital; as well as to focus on social capital's role in influencing organizational commitment. According to Kanter's (1993) theory, organizational commitment is influenced by job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is largely influenced by feelings of empowerment. Many studies, as previously noted, argue this same dynamic. Theorists, such as Locke (1976), state that a satisfied worker is a committed worker. Additionally, satisfied workers can result in lower absenteeism, lower turnover and higher organizational commitment. Organizational commitment, as noted by Becker (1960), creates a sense of oneness between the individual and the organization. A committed worker is more likely to invest oneself in the organization and look out for the organization's best interests as well.

Kanter (1993) argued that commitment is positively associated with informal power or social networks. Social networks or relations, based in networking theory, can be calculated through the culmination of social capital. Although Kanter's theory has been widely validated, no known study has linked her hypothetical theories of informal power with the organization. It is the aim of this study to create the bridge between social relationships and organizational commitment by placing social capital in the organizational framework Kanter has presented.

Hypotheses

To clarify the role of social capital within an organization, three core sets of relationships will be tested. Each of the relationships is formulated to examine the causes and consequences of social capital in the organization. As mentioned earlier, social capital is influenced by job satisfaction and empowerment. Additionally, this study argues that social capital influences a worker's level of commitment to the organization. The following discussion addresses each set of hypothetical statements that will be tested. Following the discussion each hypothesis is provided.

First, previous research states that empowerment predicts job satisfaction which in turn yields job commitment (Burt, 1992; Kanter, 1993). A worker who is empowered and has a sense of potency, meaningfulness, autonomy, and impact is more likely to feel satisfied in one's work (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Kanter, 1993). This study argues that global empowerment and job satisfaction directly influence social capital. Social capital, in turn, positively impacts job commitment. Burt (1992) states that as individuals become more embedded within the organization they also build organizational commitment. This study also argues that there is a reciprocal relationship between global empowerment and social capital. As social capital increases, an employee is more likely to feel empowered because she or he is more connected with others in the workplace. Furthermore, as a worker becomes more empowered she or he is more likely to build new avenues of social capital, and in effect decrease the risk that the worker will leave the organization. It should also be noted that intent to quit is an outcome of organizational commitment (Bluedorn, 1982; DeCottis & Summers, 1987; Farkas & Tetrick, 1989; Whitener & Walz, 1993). Intent to quit, measured in this study,

is based on an individual, voluntary perception of the likelihood to leave. Previous studies have found that perceived voluntary turnover has been associated with occupational commitment. However, intent to quit and organizational commitment are measured as separate variables with the expectation that organizational commitment will be negatively associated with intent to quit.

Next, this study will analyze the direct and indirect relationship that an individual's income and education has on one's level of global empowerment and job satisfaction. Research has shown that satisfaction and empowerment are positively associated with an individual's income and education (Okpara, 2004; Bilgic, 1998). It can be hypothesized that employees with higher incomes tend to be more satisfied and empowered due to the status financial capital brings. Also, it can be assumed that education has the same positive effect on global empowerment and job satisfaction.

Finally, previous research has established that an individual's race can shape the level of income and education one attains. Peters (1992) argues that race influences the level of income one will attain because race tends to limit an individual's mobility. Additionally, other researchers posit that race continues to have an effect on income and education (Segal & Sullivan, 1998; Strober, 1990; Kane & Spizman, 1994). Kane and Spizman state that African-Americans tend to have lower levels of educational attainment and income than Whites as a result of their parents' economic hardships. Parallel to these findings, this study maintains that race influences an individual's level of income and education.

Based on the above discussion, the following research statements will be tested in this analysis:

- (1)
 - (a) CNAs who are more empowered on the job will build more social capital with fellow workers than CNAs who are less empowered.
 - (b) CNAs who are more satisfied with their job will build more social capital with fellow workers than CNAs who are less satisfied.
 - (c) CNAs with higher levels of social capital will be more committed to the organization than CNAs with lower levels of social capital.
 - (d) The more committed CNAs are to the organization the less likely they will be to quit.
 - (e) There is an indirect positive effect between job satisfaction and commitment via social capital.
 - (f) There is an indirect positive effect between global empowerment and commitment through social capital.
- (2)
 - (a) CNAs with more income will show higher rates of job satisfaction than CNAs who have less income.
 - (b) The more educated CNAs are, the more likely they will be empowered in the organization than one with less education.
 - (b) CNAs with more income will be more empowered than CNAs with less income.
 - (c) CNAs with more income will also be more satisfied on the job than CNAs with less income.
- (3)
 - (a) Black CNAs will have lower income levels than White CNAs.
 - (b) Black CNAs will have lower education levels than White CNAs.

Conceptual Model

Figure 1 below illustrates the conceptual model. Each hypotheses outlined above is indicated within the conceptual model. In addition to the paths among the variables, the direction of the relationships is also shown. Figure 1 is an attempt to view each of the relationships in association to one another and will be necessary in understanding the following section.

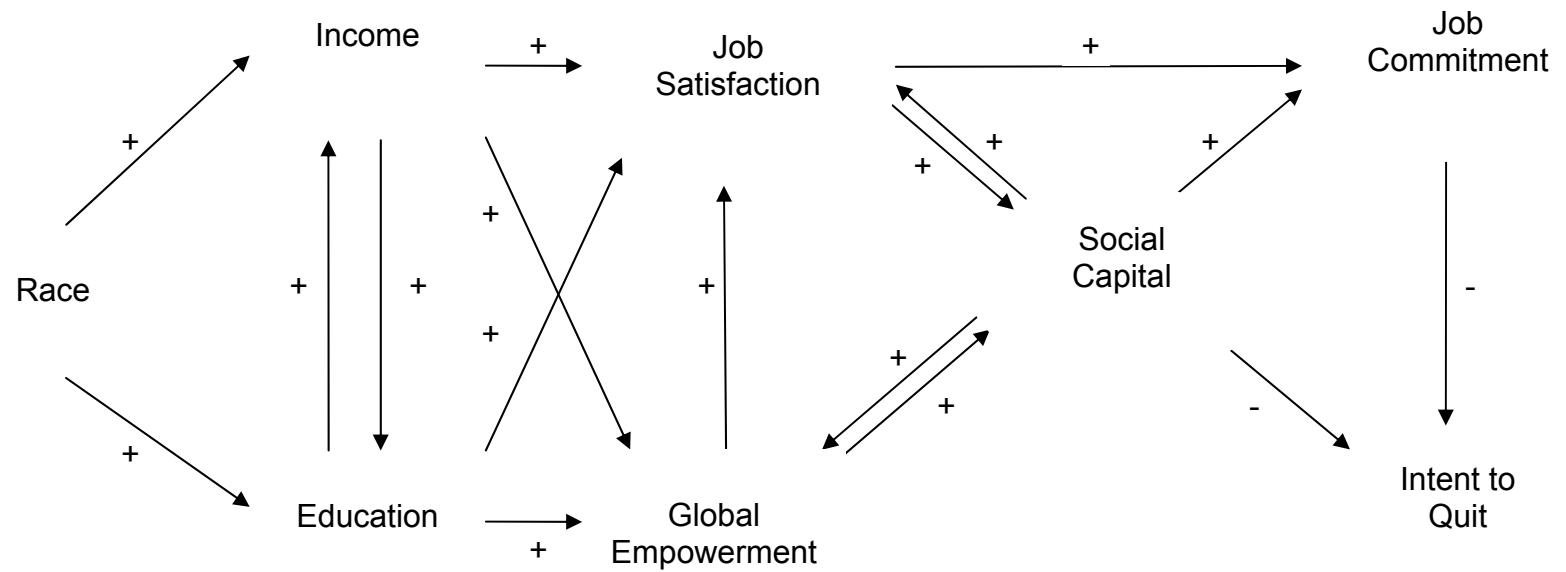


Figure 1. Conceptual model: Structural equation model. Note: Race is coded as a dummy variable where White = 1 and Black = 0.

CHAPTER II

DATA AND METHODS OF ANALYSIS

Study and Data Collection Overview

Data for the analysis are collected from a larger study on employee empowerment in nursing homes (EENH). The EENH study collected data from ten nursing homes and their current pool of certified nurse aides (CNAs), nurses, residents, and the residents' family members in the Dallas-Ft.Worth Metropolitan area. The data utilized for this study is extracted from the first wave of the EENH study.

The first wave of the EENH study included ten nursing homes (NHs). Data were collected from the nurses, CNAs, residents, and the family members of the residents. Information from the NHs was collected over a two year period from 2003-2006.

The purpose of the EENH study is to examine the effect of work teams in a nursing home facility. To do this, teams were implemented in five of the ten NHs after the first wave of data were collected. A second wave was completed after the teams had been in place for at least one year. The second wave collected data from the ten nursing homes and their nurses, CNAs, residents, the family of the residents, and the work teams.

This study will only include data gathered from CNAs who were included in the first wave. Data from the second wave will not be utilized because it is possible for work teams to foster social capital which is not inherently a part of the organization itself.

The focus of this study is on CNAs because they are an important part of the nursing home facility yet are often overlooked in the healthcare industry. A study by Olson (2001) argues that 80 to 90% of resident care is provided by CNAs. CNAs are

often viewed by residents and their family as the face of the nursing home because they have the most contact with residents on a daily basis. CNAs are frequently responsible for the daily care of the residents. Part of their jobs may include such tasks as: serving meals, delivering messages between residents and nurses, making beds, and changing, dressing, and bathing residents. Additionally, the US Department of Labor (2006) posits that the median pay for CNAs in nursing homes is \$9.86 per hour. CNAs are consistently required to work weekends, holidays, and evenings. While these jobs require great physical and mental strength for low pay, the need for more CNAs is growing at a faster than average rate compared to other professions. As the population in the US ages, there will be an increased need for CNAs and their performance will be depended on more than ever.

The nursing homes that the CNAs were employed by were chosen from 18 homes that volunteered to be included in the study, located in the Dallas-Ft.Worth metropolitan area. The criteria used to select the five comparison NHs, where work teams would be implemented, included the willingness of the nurse management and NH administrator to participate in the study and the stability of the NH management in terms of job tenure. Additional selection criteria were based on a desire to acquire variation in NH characteristics in terms of location (urban vs. rural), size, and ownership (profit vs. non-profit).

Prior to any data collection, permission was sought and attained from the facility administrators and the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the University of North Texas.

Data, in this analysis, were generated from survey results collected from CNAs in NHs. Questionnaires were administered in person to all CNAs who were presently listed

as working at each of the ten nursing homes. Questionnaires were primarily dispensed during regular in-house meetings. Attendance at meetings is typically required for all CNAs and nurses.

Permission was previously obtained by nursing home management to conduct the survey either prior to or after the staff meeting. The research staff was given a list of all CNAs and nurses currently working at the home. Each employee listed received a questionnaire in an unsealed envelope with their name on the front of the envelope to assure that each individual on the list was accounted for. Employees filled out the questionnaire and returned it to a closed box in the possession of at least one research staff member. The employees were instructed to turn in their questionnaire facedown with no identifying marks (such as names or employee number). Employees were also told to keep or throw away the envelope which had their names on it.

To account for each employee, questionnaires were given an identification code prior to the in-house meeting. The identification code list was kept in a secure location at all times and was never revealed to anyone outside of the research team. The identification code system was necessary in tracking all employees.

Employees were not rewarded for completing the questionnaire. All questionnaires were completed voluntarily by the employee. Any employee who did not want to complete the questionnaire was free to do so with no reprisal.

Characteristics of Sample

Prior to any analysis, data were entered in a database using the SPSS statistical software. Once all data had been entered, evaluated by a senior member on the

research team, and double-checked by another member on the team, basic cleaning techniques were utilized. Key variables were identified and examined for issues of irregularity. All missing cells were coded in a similar fashion as to prevent improper measurement. Any cases which had outstanding values were reexamined.

Once these cleaning techniques had been performed, descriptive statistics of the sample were calculated. The response rate for the first wave was 86%. The total sample size of the CNAs selected for the study (first wave) is 420; however, after excluding those who refused or failed to answer the questionnaire the restricted sample size consists of 358 cases. The total number, included in the first and second wave, of CNAs included in the EENH study is 823.

Missing Cases

After cleaning and listwise deletion, the total number of cases within the dataset is 235. The majority of missing cases is due to the education and race variables. Part of the diminished number of cases was due to the exclusion of self-identified Hispanic CNAs and lack of data for the race variable. Due to its nominal property no imputation is suitable on the race variable. In order to assess possible bias by excluding missing cases, missing and non-missing cases were compared. Despite the drop in sample size, there is no statistically significant difference between the missing and non-missing groups on variables such as: age, sex, or income.

Outliers

Univariate analysis reveals no influential outliers or non-normality issues for all

variables within the analysis aside from the education variable. Aside from the education variable, Table 1 indicates that all values of kurtosis and skewness are within an acceptable range; thus no transformations were performed at this level. As noted in Table 1, the education variable is problematic due to high levels of skewness and kurtosis. The education variable was measured in number of years. Upon evaluation of the univariate statistics for this variable, the decision was made to collapse the few responses that were between zero and eight years of education. Collapsing these responses resulted in acceptable univariate statistics for the education variable (skewness = .099; kurtosis = 1.000).

Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 also illustrates the correlations, means, and standard deviations for each of the variables. Below is a discussion of the major variables as they fit with other variables in their given constructs (social capital, global empowerment, job satisfaction, and job commitment).

For the social capital variables (managers respect, trust managers, managers listen, trust coworkers, coworkers support, coworkers listen, supervisors respect, supervisors listen, and trust supervisors) Table 1 indicates that all have a mean around 3. The highest mean is 3.948 for trust supervisors while the lowest mean is 2.986 for managers respect. Each of these variables ranges from 1 to 5 on a Likert scale. The standard deviation for the social capital variables ranges from .915 (trust supervisors) to 1.138 (trust managers).

Global empowerment includes 15 separate variables; their means range from 2.838 (procedures) to 3.957 (accomplish). The standard deviation of the variables included range from .799 (accomplish) to 1.165 (grapevine). Again, each of the variables is based on a 1 to 5 Likert scale.

Job satisfaction is constructed of three variables; each is measured on a five-point Likert scale. Their means range from 3.685 (satisfying) to 4.037 (work). The standard deviations range from .883 (satisfying) to 1.037 (job).

Job commitment is also constructed of three variables measured on a five-point Likert scale. Means range from 3.805 (feel attached) to 3.955 (belonging). Standard deviations vary between .916 (belonging) and 1.000 (no belonging). The remaining demographic variables are discussed in Table 2 (page 41).

Table 1

Pearson Bivariate Correlations, Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness, and Kurtosis for Model Variables (N = 257)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Managers Respect	-								
2. Trust Managers	.524**	-							
3. Managers Listen	.682**	.605**	-						
4. Trust coworkers	.479**	.339**	.301**	-					
5. Coworkers Support	.482**	.384**	.453**	.634**	-				
6. Coworkers Listen	.367**	.476**	.376**	.562**	.476**	-			
7. Supervisors Respect	.207**	.338**	.294**	.185**	.277**	.260**	-		
8. Supervisors Listen	.190**	.210**	.190**	.117	.186**	.157*	.304**	-	
9. Trust Supervisors	.321**	.365**	.259**	.277**	.238**	.341**	.603**	.372**	-
10. Belonging	.379**	.322**	.380**	.223**	.334**	.280**	.270**	.214**	.358**
11. Feel Attached	.168**	.137*	.127*	.105	.157*	.104	.135*	.220**	.198**
12. No Belonging	.227**	.249**	.229**	.172**	.173**	.230**	.113	.289**	.289**
13. Intend to Quit	-.287**	-.292**	-.252**	-.160*	-.159*	-.225**	-.174**	-.198**	-.179**
14. Think of Quitting	-.197**	-.286**	-.265**	.116	-.135*	-.153*	-.102	-.095	-.164**
15. Looking	-.349**	-.433**	-.364**	-.253**	-.201**	-.263**	-.168**	-.091	-.192**
16. Job	.313**	.359**	.397**	.294**	.276**	.326**	.240**	.072	.264**
17. Work	.277**	.258**	.257**	.186**	.164**	.177**	.127*	.120	.231**
18. Satisfying	.344**	.436**	.443**	.28**	.269**	.306**	.293**	.155*	.290**
19. Grapevine	.352**	.368**	.456**	.258**	.287**	.283**	.197**	.027	.187**
20. Admitting	.281**	.407**	.365**	.264**	.388**	.344**	.263**	.070	.134*
21. Deal	.319**	.167**	.271**	.060	.079	.042	.039	.130*	.162**
22. Supplies	.270**	.326**	.333**	.158*	.302**	.087	.324**	.153*	.299**
23. Updates	.329**	.391**	.374**	.278**	.350**	.446**	.349**	.175*	.292**
24. Accomplish	.181**	.154*	.203**	.070	.132*	.116	.183**	.100	.263**
25. Influence	.120	.049	.075	.168**	.119	.050	.108	.182**	.185**
26. Reasons	.471**	.466**	.502**	.268**	.471**	.303**	.282**	.228**	.298**
27. Information	.271**	.294**	.269**	.314**	.324**	.292**	.297**	.195**	.300**

(table continues)

Table 1 (continued).

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
28. New Ideas	.403**	.225**	.310**	.366**	.361**	.241**	.109	.112	.172**
29. Solutions	.434**	.261**	.347**	.278**	.388**	.253**	.150*	.173**	.236**
30. Input	.390**	.313**	.334**	.256**	.273**	.370**	.231**	.090	.201**
31. Overtime	.121	.187**	.109	.087	.097	.181**	.188**	.053	.214**
32. Decisions	.152*	.012	.127*	.140*	.132*	.010	-.007	.167**	.048
33. Procedures	.436**	.408**	.493**	.440**	.521**	.355**	.272**	.256**	.233**
34. Income	.070	.112	.099	.080	.112	.165**	.087	.017	-.030
35. Education	-.011	-.090	-.042	.016	-.029	-.067	-.192**	-.180**	-.156*
36. Race	.040	.079	.049	-.089	-.011	-.063	.059	-.041	.040
<i>M</i>	2.986	3.287	3.154	3.221	3.160	3.650	3.570	3.345	3.948
<i>SD</i>	1.063	1.138	1.070	1.134	1.018	1.097	1.022	.958	.915
<i>Skewness</i>	-.157	-.472	-.424	-.397	-.226	-.767	-.722	-.576	-.916
<i>Kurtosis</i>	-.538	-.545	-.399	-.589	-.278	.024	.148	.053	.912

(table continues)

Table 1 (continued).

Variables	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. Managers Respect									
2. Trust Managers									
3. Managers Listen									
4. Trust coworkers									
5. Coworkers Support									
6. Coworkers Listen									
Supervisors									
7. Respect									
8. Supervisors Listen									
9. Trust Supervisors									
10. Belonging	-								
11. Feel Attached	.403**	-							
12. No Belonging	.536**	.437**	-						
13. Intend to Quit	-.448**	-.183**	-.433**	-					
14. Think of Quitting	-.368**	-.248**	-.468**	.504**	-				
15. Looking	-.530**	-.309**	-.456**	.548**	.574**	-			
16. Job	.619**	.270**	.471**	-.454**	-.395**	-.543**	-		
17. Work	.453**	.354**	.367**	-.385**	-.356**	-.479**	.569**	-	
18. Satisfying	.496**	.345**	.414**	-.328**	-.383**	-.535**	.578**	.522**	-
19. Grapevine	.268**	-.035	.188**	-.255**	-.218**	-.280**	.324**	.161**	.236**
20. Admitting	.189**	-.052	.130*	-.094	-.121	-.185**	.203**	.147*	.171**
21. Deal	.135*	.130*	.129*	-.053	.032	-.078	.073	.112	.143*
22. Supplies	.190**	.177**	.145*	-.117	-.150*	-.175**	.181**	.090	.275**
23. Updates	.234**	.044	.155*	-.088	-.161**	-.197**	.242**	.191**	.220**
24. Accomplish	.326**	.346**	.227*	-.142*	-.155*	-.258**	.275**	.388**	.379**
25. Influence	.111	.068	.118	-.040	.022	-.005	.090	.174**	.176**
26. Reasons	.300**	.086	.201**	-.236**	-.119	-.237**	.217**	.181**	.305**
27. Information	.182**	.105	.130*	-.146*	-.067	-.129*	.154*	.145*	.228**

(table continues)

Table 1 (*continued*).

Variables	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
28. New Ideas	.285**	.070	.130*	-.267**	-.177**	-.238**	.260**	.172**	.243**
29. Solutions	.324**	.107	.128*	-.172**	-.068	-.172**	.272**	.174**	.248**
30. Input	.181**	.003	.143*	-.128*	-.104	-.202**	.207**	.088	.186**
31. Overtime	.185**	.132*	.198**	-.263**	-.218**	-.207**	.214**	.243**	.136*
32. Decisions	.126*	.119	.159*	-.050	-.002	-.001	.090	.072	.081
33. Procedures	.239**	.057	.126*	-.135*	-.072	-.175**	.268**	.181**	.279**
34. Income	.032	-.092	-.009	-.123*	-.102	-.113	.124*	.114	.116
35. Education	-.173**	-.162**	-.176**	.201**	.051	.214**	-.178**	-.227**	-.054
36. Race	.046	-.111	-.100	.042	.076	.065	-.070	-.097	-.134*
<i>M</i>	3.955	3.805	3.880	2.438	2.084	2.314	3.798	4.037	3.685
<i>SD</i>	.916	.986	1.000	1.179	1.109	1.149	1.037	.929	.883
<i>Skewness</i>	-.835	-.648	-.779	.627	.948	.801	-.801	-.952	-.825
<i>Kurtosis</i>	.724	.190	.242	-.316	.262	.012	.225	1.359	1.134

(table continues)

Table 1 (continued).

Variables	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27
1. Managers Respect									
2. Trust Managers									
3. Managers Listen									
4. Trust coworkers									
5. Coworkers Support									
6. Coworkers Listen									
Supervisors									
7. Respect									
8. Supervisors Listen									
9. Trust Supervisors									
10. Belonging									
11. Feel Attached									
12. No Belonging									
13. Intend to Quit									
14. Think of Quitting									
15. Looking									
16. Job									
17. Work									
18. Satisfying									
19. Grapevine	-								
20. Admitting	.375**	-							
21. Deal	.181**	.050	-						
22. Supplies	.243**	.269**	.243**	-					
23. Updates	.333**	.608**	.106	.341**	-				
24. Accomplish	.199**	.069	.303**	.269**	.162**	-			
25. Influence	.089	-.017	.166**	.178**	.065	.265**	-		
26. Reasons	.290**	.379**	.180**	.341**	.299**	.121	.115	-	
27. Information	.173**	.261**	.081	.234**	.320**	.064	.011	.340**	-

(table continues)

Table 1 (*continued*).

Variables	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27
28. New Ideas	.168**	.081	.073	.156*	.220**	.152*	.108	.275**	.192**
29. Solutions	.208**	.164**	.116	.166**	.223**	.192**	.174*	.4403**	.179**
30. Input	.168**	.346**	.013	.102	.369**	.007	-.026	.346**	.195**
31. Overtime	.201**	.158*	.123*	.131*	.132*	.140*	.065	.155*	.112
32. Decisions	.087	.010	.087	.160*	-.002	.051	.023	.077	.087
33. Procedures	.357**	.355**	.154*	.278**	.353**	.114	.103	.445**	.321**
34. Income	.202**	.125*	-.119	.079	.253**	.009	.063	.082	.020
35. Education	.064	-.048	.066	.015	.031	.025	.052	-.187**	-.037
36. Race	.105	.149*	.077	.101	.170**	-.056	-.121	.049	-.068
<i>M</i>	3.476	2.969	3.885	3.755	3.272	3.957	3.990	2.974	3.171
<i>SD</i>	1.165	1.238	.803	1.006	1.109	.799	.985	1.069	1.061
<i>Skewness</i>	-.453	-.059	-.931	-.932	-.307	-.737	-.952	-.120	-.374
<i>Kurtosis</i>	-.598	-1.134	1.810	.682	-.762	.971	1.368	-.746	-.511

(*table continues*)

Table 1 (continued).

Variables	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36
1. Managers Respect									
2. Trust Managers									
3. Managers Listen									
4. Trust coworkers									
5. Coworkers Support									
6. Coworkers Listen									
7. Supervisors Respect									
8. Supervisors Listen									
9. Trust Supervisors									
10. Belonging									
11. Feel Attached									
12. No Belonging									
13. Intend to Quit									
14. Think of Quitting									
15. Looking									
16. Job									
17. Work									
18. Satisfying									
19. Grapevine									
20. Admitting									
21. Deal									
22. Supplies									
23. Updates									
24. Accomplish									
25. Influence									
26. Reasons									
27. Information									

(table continues)

Table 1 (continued).

Variables	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36
28. New Ideas	-								
29. Solutions	.598**	-							
30. Input	.163**	.228**	-						
31. Overtime	.153*	.091	-.032	-					
32. Decisions	.149*	.107	.045	.105	-				
33. Procedures	.255**	.400**	.433**	.049	.156*	-			
34. Income	.146*	.143*	.072	.067	.002	.108	-		
35. Education	.017	-.034	-.033	-.047	-.048	-.105	.099	-	
36. Race	.071	.035	.000	.062	.078	-.071	.154*	.102	-
<i>M</i>	3.008	3.074	2.564	4.149	3.237	2.838	2.630	11.850	1.590
<i>SD</i>	1.030	.999	.999	.854	1.003	.975	1.240	1.879	.682
Skewness	-.219	-.167	.219	-.998	-.292	.099	.143	-1.223	.724
Kurtosis	-.506	-.331	-.550	1.010	-.463	-.352	-.941	5.856	-.615

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Demographics

For the sample of those cases which are included in the analysis, the average age of the CNA is about 36 (Table 2). The youngest CNA is 18, while the oldest is 70. The majority of the CNAs are female. However, CNAs are nearly equally divided between Black and White. Forty-three percent of CNAs in the analysis reported “always” or “usually” having a difficult time paying bills. Thirty-five percent of CNAs reported difficulty paying bills only “sometimes”. While only 22% of CNAs reported “rarely” or “never” having a difficult time paying bills.

Table 2

Sociodemographic Information: Race, Age, Gender, and Difficulty Paying Bills

	Base	White	Black
Race			
Whites	58%		
Blacks	42%		
Age			
Mean	36	36	37
Youngest	18	18	19
Oldest	70	70	60
Gender			
Males	15%	11%	14%
Females	85%	89%	86%
Difficulty Paying Bills			
‘Always’ or ‘Usually’	43%	51%	33%
‘Sometimes’	35%	29%	39%
‘Rarely’ or ‘Never’	22%	20%	26%

Statistical Method of Analysis

The purpose of this study is to examine the role that social capital performs in an occupational setting. There are two parts of this analysis which will be executed simultaneously. First, the structure of the analysis to examine the theoretical determinants which influence the growth of social capital; the second part of the analysis is to measure the effects that social capital has on organizational commitment and the workers intent to stay with the organization. The most suitable type of analysis for this study is a structural equation model with latent variables (SEM).

A structural equation model with latent variables is constructed to show the relationship between exogenous (race) and endogenous (income, education, social capital, perceived turnover, commitment, job satisfaction, and empowerment) variables. Additionally, the structural equation model with latent variables allows for manifest and latent measurement of the variables. Four variables (race, income, education, and global empowerment) are considered manifest variables because each can be directly measured by a single question or through a cumulative scale based on a number of questions. However, the remaining four constructs or variables (job satisfaction, social capital, organizational commitment, and intent to quit) in the model are measured by a multitude of differing variables. Another advantage of utilizing a structural equation model with latent variables is that each of the differing variables can be recognized, statistically, for their contribution to the respective construct.

The requirement accompanying the structural equation model is that the sample size is 200 or more and that there are five cases or observations per parameter. With an initial sample size of 420 these requirements are met.

Furthermore, the structural equation model allows a proper analysis of the reciprocal and unilateral relationships represented in this model. As illustrated in Figure 1 (pg. 33), the model is non-recursive because it allows for feedback loops and correlated error terms (Kline, 1998). For example, the error terms for organizational commitment and intent to stay are correlated because it is possible for one or more variables not included in this model to affect both variables. Another correlated error term exists between job satisfaction and global empowerment. Feedback loops are expressed through the relationships between social capital and empowerment. The feedback loop assumes that the relationships are reciprocal or bidirectional. Due to the structure of the hypotheses and statistical procedure, the model is just identified. The LISREL program is used to estimate the structural equation model (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1971).

Overview of Variables

Variables were analyzed to create a composite social capital index variable from nine items within the EENH dataset. Each of the constructs in the model, including social capital, are identified in Table 3 with each construct variable listed below. All variables are measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*Disagree strongly*) to 5 (*Agree strongly*) and are treated as Interval/Ratio variables.

Table 3

Variable Names and Measurements

<i>Name</i>	<i>Item Measurements</i>
SOCIAL CAPITAL	
Trust Managers	CNA can trust the management staff to help
Managers Respect	Management take CNA's suggestions seriously
Managers Listen	Management staff listen to CNA's suggestions
Trust coworkers	Can trust other CNAs to help
Coworkers Support	Have the support needed from other CNAs
Coworkers Listen	CNAs listen to each others suggestions
Trust Supervisors	CNA can trust the supervisors to help
Supervisors Listen	Supervisors listen to CNA's suggestions
Supervisors Respect	Supervisors take CNA's suggestions seriously
ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT	
Belonging	Feel a strong sense of belonging
Feel Attached	Feel emotionally attached to this nursing home
No Belonging	Do not feel a strong sense of belonging
INTENT TO QUIT (a subset of commitment)	
Intend to Quit	Will probably not be working here a year from now
Looking	Currently looking for another job
Think of Quitting	Frequently think of leaving this job
JOB SATISFACTION	
Job	Overall satisfaction with job
Work	Overall satisfaction with the work I do
Satisfying	Job is a satisfying one
GLOBAL EMPOWERMENT	
Grapevine	CNAs rely on the grapevine for information
Admitting	When new resident is admitted all information is given
Deal	CNA deals effectively with residents' problems
Supplies	Get supplies when needed
Updates	Given regular updates when changes occur
Accomplish	CNA has accomplished many worthwhile goals
Influence	CNA influences others positively through work
Reasons	CNA given reason why their suggestion is not used
Information	CNA provides information in caring for resident

(table continues)

Table 3 (*continued*).

(Global Empowerment - *cont.*)

New Ideas	Provides new ideas that are used at work
Solutions	Provides solutions to problems
Input	CNA asked how work should be changed to improve
Overtime	Forced to work overtime
Procedures	CNA decide procedures for residents at meal times
Decisions	CNA asked to help make decisions about their work
INCOME	Ability to pay bills
EDUCATION	Highest level of education completed
RACE	White/Black/Other

Operational Definitions

The survey instrument was originally designed to measure the effectiveness of work teams in organizations. In its design, the instrument offers a number of questions regarding organizational elements such as: commitment, attachment, feeling, coworker respect and acknowledgement, satisfaction of work, satisfaction of fellow workers, emotional feelings toward the organization and coworkers, as well as demographic information. Due to the number of individual questions in the survey instrument, it was necessary to define the concepts which are measured in the analysis. Each of the items listed above were chosen carefully as to adequately represent the meaning of the construct itself.

Manifest Variables

Manifest variables which are measured by a single item or scale in the survey instrument are represented by the concepts of income, race, education, and global

empowerment. *Income* is represented by a sole 5-point Likert scale item. The item, though representing income, in fact measures the CNA's ability to pay bills. Although it is acknowledged here that less specific information can be collected from this type of measurement, the advantage of this definition is that it equalizes the disparities present in varying standards of living across the Dallas-Ft. Worth metropolitan area. While some of the nursing homes were located in and around the urban area, some were located in rural parts where standards are slightly different. Overall, respondents reported a mean difficulty of paying bills as 2.6, or sometimes difficult.

The *education* variable is another manifest variable that is measured by a single item on the survey instrument. The education variable is an open-ended question, as individuals were asked to write in her or his level of educational attainment versus circling a prescribed figure. Its goal is to attain the highest number of years the CNA has acquired. As noted in Table 1 (pg. 40) the average years of education reported by CNAs was 11.9, similar to a high school education. The fewest years of education reported was 8 and the highest was 16.

The next manifest variable in the analysis is the *race* variable. This variable was measured as a nominal variable with the possibility open to allow respondents to write in an answer. Respondents could select White, Black, or other. If they chose other, they were prompted to write in an answer. However, due to the marginal number (35 respondents or 11.1% of the sample) of other respondents, this study does not include them in the analysis. The remaining sample was divided between Black and White. There were 164 (58.4%) White respondents and 117 (41.6%) Black respondents. As to the nature of this nominal variable, in the analysis Black was arbitrarily assigned as the

reference group. Due to the minimal number of respondents who identified as neither White or Black, this group was discarded from the analysis.

The final manifest variable in the analysis is *global empowerment*. Global empowerment is slightly different from the previous variables because it is a single measurement based on the accumulation of 15 variables. Each of the 15 variables is measured on a 5-point Likert scale and the values indicated are combined as to represent global empowerment. Thus the range of values for this variable is much wider and varies from 26 to 87. Each of the questions assembled for this variable taps into the four dimensions of global empowerment (competence, meaningfulness, impact, and autonomy) as previously discussed. As listed in Table 3, variables such as 'grapevine', 'admitting', 'deal', 'supplies', and 'updates' are indicators of *competence*. The following variable labeled 'accomplish', is representative of *meaningfulness*. While *impact* is denoted by the next variables listed as 'influence', 'reasons', and 'information'. Finally, *autonomy* is measured by the remaining six variables: 'new ideas', 'solutions', 'input', 'overtime', 'procedures', and 'decisions'. Regardless of the dimension that each of the variables draws on, collectively the variables measure global empowerment.

Latent Variables

In addition to the manifest variables in the analysis there are also four latent variables. The advantage to representing these variables as such is that it reduces measurement error and it also allows the researcher to recognize the intensity of each question in its relation to the construct and the model as a whole.

Social capital is represented by the only second-order latent variable in the model. The rationale behind this configuration was to show the discrepancies between the varying levels of hierarchy (management, supervisor, or coworker). Each of the levels is represented by three questions that correspond to the relationship between the CNA and the specific level of authority. Within each cluster, the questions measure the foundation of social capital: trust, support, and respect. Combined there are nine questions which measure social capital and each is listed in Table 3. All of the nine questions are measured using a 5-point Likert scale.

The remaining variables; job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intent to quit are measured by a first-order latent variables within the SEM. *Job satisfaction* is constructed of three variables. Each of the variables is measured with a 5-point Likert scale. All the variables inquire as to how satisfied the CNA is at work.

Similarly, *organizational commitment* is measured through three variables which assess the CNA's attachment or commitment to the organization. The three variables are also measured with a Likert scale ranging from one to five.

Finally, the variable *intent to quit* is constructed as a first-order latent variable within the SEM. The three questions examine the likelihood that the CNA will look for a new job soon. Each of these questions is also measured with a Likert scale ranging from one to five.

Summary

The data utilized in this study was chosen to accurately measure the role of social capital within the organizational setting. Variables such as race, income,

education, job satisfaction, and global empowerment act as precursors in establishing and influencing social capital. While variables such as commitment and intent to quit allow one to further understand the ramifications of social capital in the organization. Each of these variables has been chosen from a larger study on CNAs in the nursing home. For this reason, this study has the added benefit of drawing on concepts such as commitment, satisfaction, and empowerment.

The concepts or constructs in the model are measured in the most appropriate manner as to reduce measurement error and increase the breadth of the concept. In an effort to accurately portray the role of social capital, a structural equation model with latent variables is utilized in the analysis. It is of added benefit that an SEM takes into account measurement error while allowing for maximum representation of each construct. Moreover, the use of an SEM allows for the computation of direct and indirect effects, as well as total effects within the model. Finally and for these reasons, the SEM procedure is the only statistical procedure which simultaneously allows for measurement of the conditions and consequences of social capital.

CHAPTER III

ANALYSIS OF MODELS

Introduction

In this chapter the analysis of varying structural equation models (SEM) will be employed to investigate all the possible relationships in the study. Here several models are presented to illustrate the metamorphosis and steps taken to achieve an ideal model. Upon initial analysis, findings revealed that the conceptual model referred to earlier (pg. 33) could not be estimated. Models 1 and 2 are presented here in an effort to allow the reader to follow the sequence of changes prior to arriving at the final model. It should be noted that Models 1 and 2 are not presented as conflicting or alternative models to the study. For this reason, less detail and emphasis is placed on subsequent models.

Model 1

Preliminary analysis of the SEM model represented in Figure 1 exposes detrimental issues of collinearity and restrictions based on low sample size. Issues of collinearity are found most strikingly between within group constructs of job commitment and intent to quit. It was assumed that there would be high correlations between these constructs due to their inherent nature. These issues of collinearity were underscored by the low sample size in relation to parameter estimates. As noted in the methods section, SEM requires 5 cases per parameter; the conceptual model stressed this condition with 6 cases per parameter. For these reasons the conceptual model was altered.

Adjustments to the conceptual model are represented in Figure 2. Figure 2 reveals the transformation of both the organizational commitment and intent to quit variables. Each of these variables was changed into manifest variables. The rationale behind this alteration is to decrease the parameters in the model, to reduce collinearity issues among individual items, and to relieve the pressure of sample size constraints. By transforming these variables four paths are omitted.

In addition to transforming the nature of these two variables, the path from social capital to intent to quit was excluded from the analysis. This path was omitted in a further effort to eliminate collinearity issues between job commitment and intent to quit. Furthermore, the bidirectional relationship between income and education was replaced by correlating the error terms between the two variables. This decision was made because the relationship was not the focus of the study and correlating the error terms, without the bidirectional arrows, takes into account the relationship between the variables.

As illustrated in Model 1, five path coefficients are statistically significant at the 0.05 level. The paths from race to education and income are both significant. Model 1 shows that there is a significant negative relationship between these variables. On average, it appears that White CNAs reported less education and income than Black CNAs. Model 1 also indicates that the path between job satisfaction and job commitment is statistically significant. The model indicates that there is a positive significant relationship between job satisfaction and job commitment. Furthermore, for every standard deviation increase in job satisfaction, job commitment is expected to increase 0.63 standard deviations. As expected, the path between job commitment and

intent to quit is positively statistically significant.

Additionally, the path coefficient from social capital to job satisfaction is statistically significant and negative. However, the path coefficient from job satisfaction to social capital is not significant but is extremely similar in value. Upon further evaluation, this abnormality in the data, as well as other extreme error terms indicates that this model is not a good-fitting model. Model 1, as it is estimated, reveals a poor fit for the data and does not accurately measure the organizational constructs this study is focused on. Further evidence of this model's inadequacy is identified in the goodness of fit statistics reported in Table 4.

Table 4
Fit Indices of Structural Equation Models

		Null Model	Model 1	Model 2	Final Model
Chi squared Statistics	χ^2	868.72	110.98	111.63	57.43
	<i>df</i>	66	44	44	41
	<i>p</i> -value	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.05
	$\Delta \chi^2$		773.38	0.65	54.20
	<i>df</i>		22	0	3
	<i>p</i> -value		0.00	0.00	0.05
Absolute Fit Indices	AIC	892.72	178.98	177.63	131.43
	GFI		0.93	0.93	0.96
	AGFI		0.87	0.87	0.93
	SRMR		0.07	0.07	0.04
	RMSEA		0.08	0.08	0.04
Incremental Fit Indices	NNFI		0.86	0.86	0.96
	NFI		0.86	0.86	0.93
	CFI		0.91	0.91	0.98

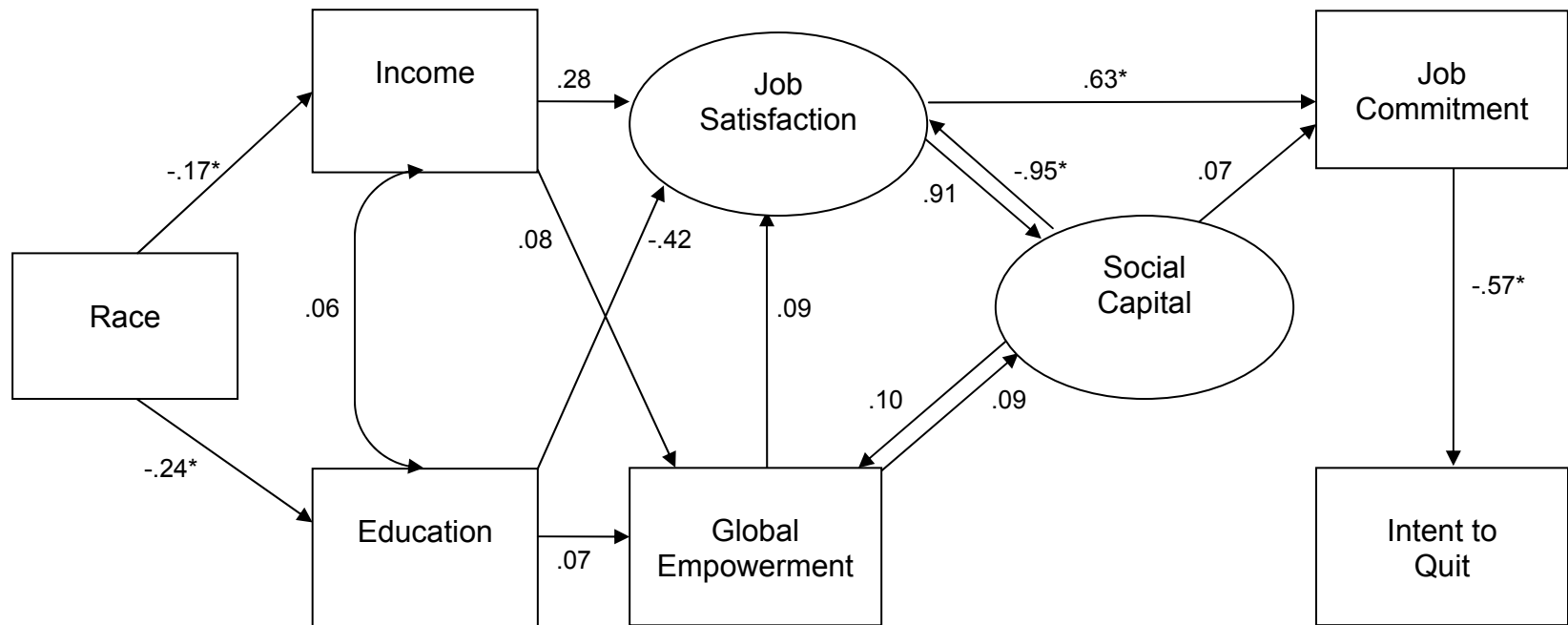


Figure 2. Model 1: SEM with Job Commitment and Intent to Quit as manifest variables (* $p < .05$).

Model 2

In an effort to alleviate the irregular patterns shown in Model 1, Model 2 was constructed. Model 2 eliminates all bi-directional relationships. At this point in the analysis a decision was made to show the additive properties of social capital in its relationship to job commitment. Thus, the paths impacting social capital was maintained while the paths exiting social capital are abandoned, in regards to former bidirectional relationships. It was the hope that this model could retain the structure of all other major constructs. Unfortunately, as noted in Figure 3, path coefficients remain unusually high and error terms remain irregular.

Although this model is not a good-fitting model, and cannot be completely relied on, it shows preliminary evidence as suggested in Model 1 that there is a significant relationship between race and education and income. Furthermore, there also appears to be a significant relationship between job satisfaction and education, income, social capital, and job commitment. Additionally, global empowerment is significantly related to education and social capital. Finally, as noted in Model 1, job commitment and intent to quit are significantly related.

It is concluded that due to the irregularities noted above, Model 2 is not a good-fitting model for the relationships which are represented herein. In addition to these anomalies, the statistics represented in Table 4 substantiate the claim that this model is a poor fit. At this point in the analysis process, there is no need for further explanation of the relationships in this model. Model 2 is presented at this point to accurately reflect the most important alterations that were made to the conceptual model.

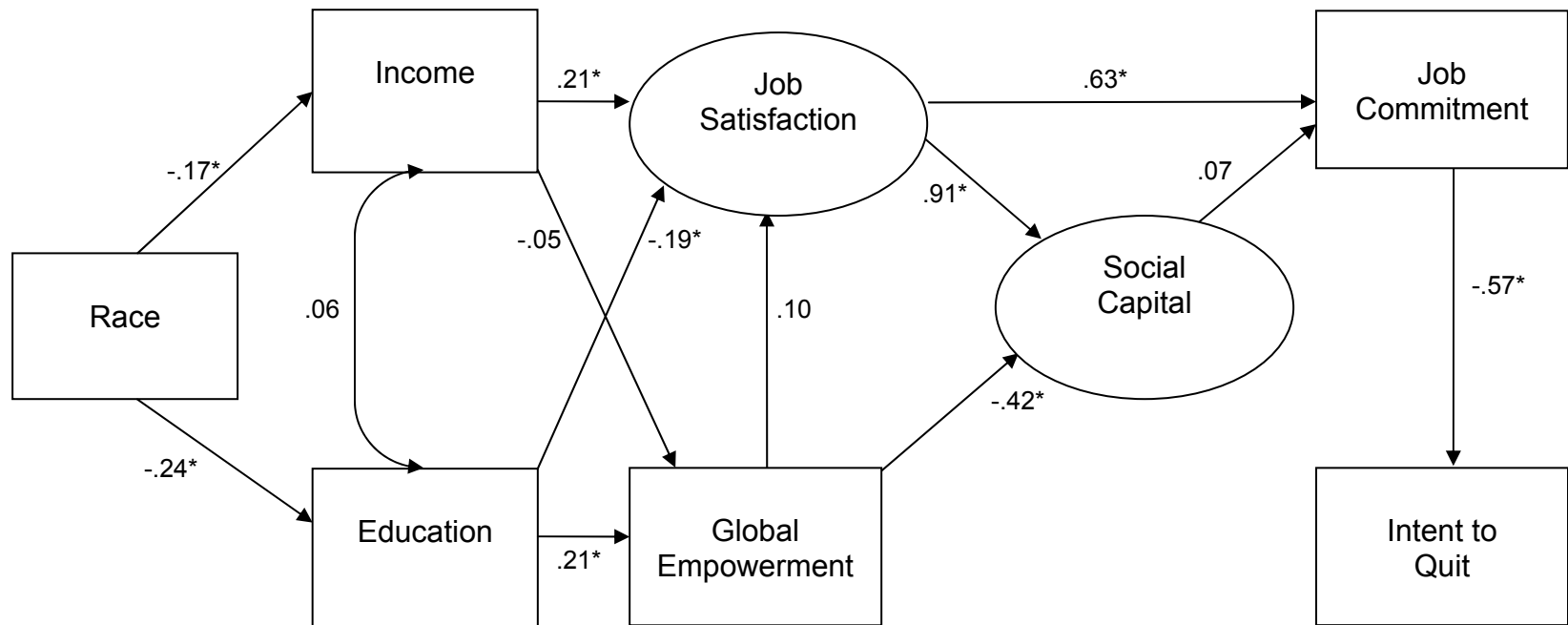


Figure 3. Model 2: SEM omitting Bi-directional Relationships (* $p < .05$, one-tail test).

Final Model

Changes between the Conceptual and Final Models

The final model as represented in Figure 4 indicates the changes that were made between models. A key change in the model is the elimination of the intent to quit variable. The intent to quit variable was originally included in the model to represent an outcome of the job commitment variable. This variable was not a primary indicator or product of the chief social capital variable. The decision to drop this variable was made after careful consideration of collinearity issues and was executed in the best interest of the model.

Other important changes between the conceptual and final models include: the elimination of all information-based items, reduction of first-order latent variables comprising the job commitment variable to a single manifest variable, and a decrease in the social capital construct from a second to first-order latent variable. First, items included in the analysis that investigated issues of information sharing, either giving or receiving, were dropped from the analysis due to issues of collinearity. The majority of these items were contained in the global empowerment scale. Although, three items were within the social capital construct. A revised list of the constructs and their corresponding items is listed in Table 5. Prior to the removal of these items efforts were made to combine them as a single scale, loading on the global empowerment variable. However, due to low alpha levels this course of action could not be followed.

Due to these changes, the final model is considered a partially recursive model because it allows for correlated error terms but not feedback loops (Kline, 1998).

Furthermore, after reducing the number of paths between the variables and the number of variables, this model is now over-identified.

Table 5

Variable Names and Measurements after the Removal of all Information Variables

<i>Name</i>	<i>Item Measurements</i>
SOCIAL CAPITAL	
<i>Social Capital with Management</i> ($\alpha = .702$)	
Trust Managers	CNA can trust the management staff to help
Managers Respect	Management take CNA's suggestions seriously
<i>Social Capital with Coworkers</i> ($\alpha = .769$)	
Trust coworkers	Can trust other CNAs to help
Coworkers Support	Have the support needed from other CNAs
<i>Social Capital with Supervisors</i> ($\alpha = .737$)	
Trust Supervisors	CNA can trust the supervisors to help
Supervisors Respect	Supervisors take CNA's suggestions seriously
JOB (ORGANIZATIONAL) COMMITMENT ($\alpha = .641$)	
Belonging	Feel a strong sense of belonging
No Belonging	Do not feel a strong sense of belonging
JOB SATISFACTION ($\alpha = .770$)	
Job	Overall satisfaction with job
Work	Overall satisfaction with the work I do
Satisfying	Job is a satisfying one
GLOBAL EMPOWERMENT ($\alpha = .646$)	
Deal	CNA deals effectively with residents' problems
Accomplish	CNA has accomplished many worthwhile goals
Influence	CNA influences others positively through work
New Ideas	Provides new ideas that are used at work
Solutions	Provides solutions to problems
Input	CNA asked how work should be changed to improve
Decisions	CNA asked to help make decisions about their work
INCOME	Ability to pay bills
EDUCATION	Highest level of education completed
RACE	White/Black/Other

Description of Variables and Bivariate Correlations in the Final Model

Table 6 depicts the bivariate correlations, means, standard deviations, minimum, maximum, skewness, and kurtosis values for the variables utilized in the final model as they are measured. A brief overview of Table 6 shows that there are no extreme correlations between variables. It is interesting to note that all correlations among global empowerment, job satisfaction, social capital, and job commitment are statistically significant. Additionally, correlations illustrate that race has a significant relationship with only income, education, and manager social capital. Manager social capital is the social capital that exists between the CNA and the manager. However, income is significantly related to supervisor social capital. Finally, education is significantly correlated with both supervisor and coworker social capital, yet it is not significantly correlated with manager social capital. This suggests that education does matter when it comes to building bridges with coworkers and supervisors. Though, race appears to be more statistically important when connecting socially with managers.

As noted previously, the average years of education CNAs reported was about 12 years, or a high school senior. On average, CNAs also reported sometimes having difficulty paying their bills as represented by a mean of 2.6. Overall, CNAs reported stronger social capital connections with coworkers versus supervisors or managers.

Finally, as noted in Table 6, there appears to be no excessive values of skewness or kurtosis. All variables range between -1 and 1 for skewness, and between -2 and 2 for kurtosis.

Table 6

*Pearson Bivariate Correlations, Means, Standard Deviations, Minimum, Maximum,
Skewness and Kurtosis Values for Final Model*

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Race ^a	---								
2. Income	-.174*	---							
3. Education	-.239*	.098	---						
4. Global Empowerment	.018	.100	.061	---					
5. Job Satisfaction - A (6)	-.006	.156*	-.173*	.347*	---				
6. Job Satisfaction - B (38)	.015	.161*	-.183*	.322*	.584*	---			
7. Job Satisfaction - C (60)	.094	.144*	-.047	.407*	.594*	.522*	---		
8. Social Capital - Manager	-.135*	.106	-.081	.472*	.411*	.323*	.467*	---	
9. Social Capital - Supervisor	-.021	.170*	-.143*	.369*	.393*	.250*	.353*	.588*	---
10. Social Capital - Coworker	-.075	.080	-.172*	.297*	.306*	.219*	.331*	.414*	.412*
11. Job Commitment - A (7)	-.064	.084	-.108	.400*	.641*	.421*	.512*	.438*	.431*
12. Job Commitment - B (61)	.084	.031	-.132*	.278*	.486*	.340*	.416*	.299*	.284*
<i>M</i>	.583	2.630	11.912	21.227	3.798	4.037	3.685	6.277	6.799
<i>SD</i>	.493	1.240	1.650	3.121	1.037	.929	.883	1.930	1.819
Minimum	0.0	1.0	8.0	12.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	2.0	2.0
Maximum	1.0	5.0	16.0	30.0	5.0	5.0	5.0	10.0	10.0
Skewness	-.341	.143	-.099	-.002	-.801	-.952	-.825	-.405	-.569
Kurtosis	-1.897	-.941	1.000	.615	.225	1.359	1.134	-.213	.003

(table continues)

Table 6 (continued).

Variables	10	11	12
1. Race ^a			
2. Income			
3. Education			
4. Global Empowerment			
5. Job Satisfaction - A (6)			
6. Job Satisfaction - B (38)			
7. Job Satisfaction - C (60)			
8. Social Capital - Manager			
9. Social Capital - Supervisor			
10. Social Capital - Coworker	---		
11. Job Commitment - A (7)	.356*	---	
12. Job Commitment - B (61)	.220*	.513*	---
<i>M</i>	7.526	3.955	3.880
<i>SD</i>	1.724	.916	1.001
Minimum	2.0	1.0	1.0
Maximum	10.0	5.0	5.0
Skewness	-.798	-.835	-.779
Kurtosis	.656	.724	.242

Note: * $p < 0.05$. ^a Race is a dummy variable where Black CNAs are coded as the reference group.

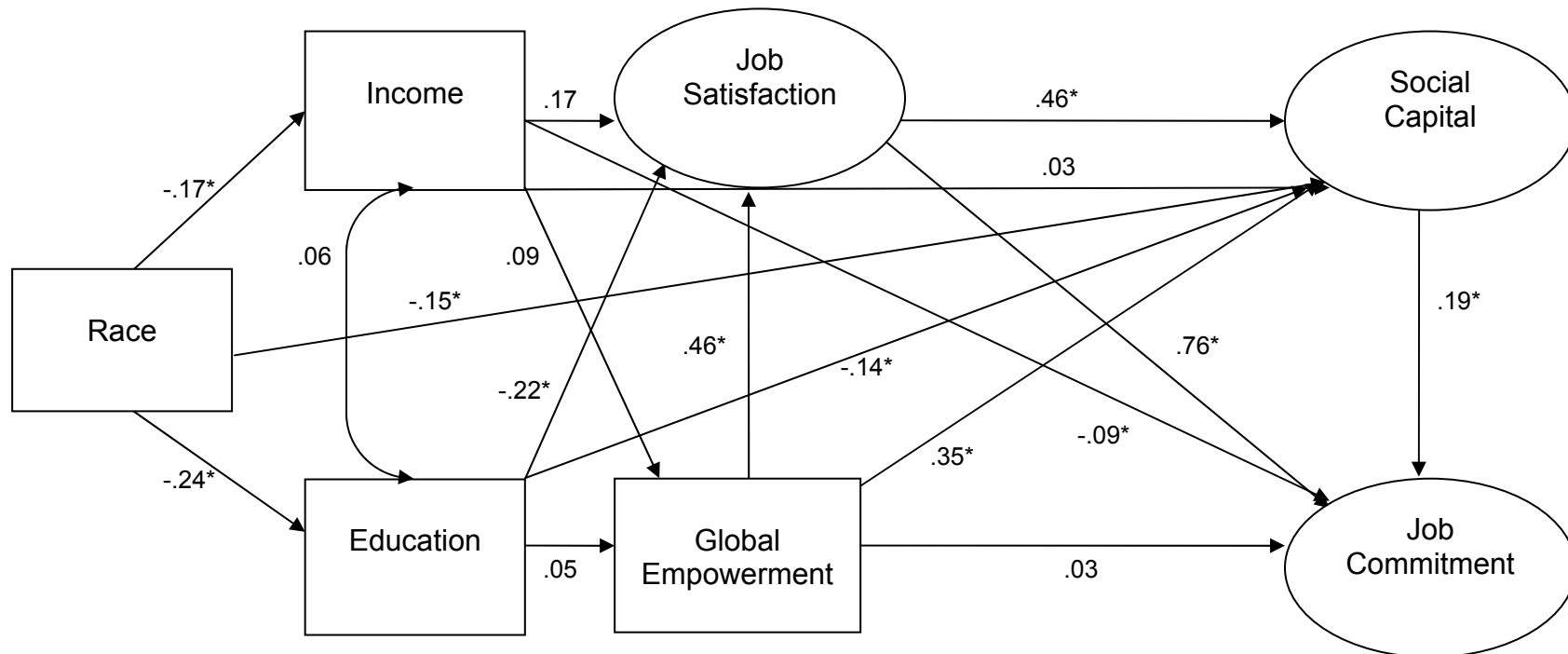


Figure 4. Final model (* $p < .05$, one-tail test).

Table 7

Factor Loadings for Variables in the Final Model (N = 235)

	Unstandardized	(SE)	Standardized	Standard Error Variance
Global Empowerment				
(A) Global empowerment (scale)	1.00 ^{NT}	(0.00)	1.00	0.99
Job Satisfaction				0.72
(A) Overall Satisfaction with Job	1.00 ^{NT}	(0.00)	0.85	0.28
(B) Overall satisfaction with the work I do	0.79***	(0.08)	0.67	0.55
(C) Job is a satisfying one	0.86***	(0.07)	0.73	0.47
Social Capital				0.46
(A) Social capital – Manager	1.00 ^{NT}	(0.00)	0.80	0.36
(B) Social capital – Supervisor	0.91***	(0.09)	0.72	0.48
(C) Social capital – Coworker	0.69***	(0.09)	0.55	0.69
Job Commitment				0.20
(A) Feel a strong sense of belonging	1.00 ^{NT}	(0.00)	0.82	0.32
(B) Do not feel a strong sense of belonging	0.76***	(0.09)	0.62	0.61
Race				
(A) Race	1.00 ^{NT}	(0.00)	1.00	1.00
Income				
(A) Income	1.00 ^{NT}	(0.00)	1.00	0.97
Education				
(A) Education	1.00 ^{NT}	(0.00)	1.00	0.94

^{NT} Factor loading not tested because it was fixed to 1.00. * $p \leq 0.05$. ** $p \leq 0.01$. *** $p \leq 0.001$. (two-tailed test).

Discussion of Final Model Statistics

As noted in Table 4 (pg. 60), the final model meets all requirements for being a good-fitting model. All important indicators such as: p -value, RMSEA, and NNFI are within range of qualifying as a good-fit. The p -value for the final model is 0.05. The RMSEA, NNFI, and other indicators are above 0.90, each of these statistics signify the model is a good-fit. Due to the reliability inherent in the goodness of fit statistics, the path coefficients listed in Figure 4 are dependable.

Table 7 is an extension of Figure 4; it indicates the factor loadings and standard errors for each manifest variable which has been noted in Table 5. Factor loadings indicate that all manifest variables are significant constructs of the respective latent variables. Job satisfaction is built slightly more on the third (0.73) versus second (0.67) manifest indicator. Additionally, as noted earlier, the social capital construct is represented by three manifest variables; manager, supervisor, and coworker social capital. Table 7 indicates that the social capital a CNA constructs with someone in the manager position holds the most weight (0.80). The social capital with the supervisor runs a close second (0.72). However, the social capital manufactured with fellow CNAs has an extremely low loading (0.55). Statistically, some may argue that this loading should be dropped from the analysis; yet, it was retained in an effort to show the hierarchical differences in the construction of social capital within an organizational framework.

Furthermore, among these coefficients there are many direct, indirect, and total effects which play a significant role in the model. A discussion of the effects follows, which is illustrated in Table 8. Direct effects indicate that the relationship between the

Table 8

Decomposition of Effects: Standardized Direct, Indirect, and Total Effects

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Race							
Direct		-.17*	-.24*	---	---	-.15*	---
Indirect		---	---	-.03	.01	.02	.00
Total		-.17*	-.24*	-.03	.01	-.13*	.00
2. Income							
Direct				.09	.17	.03	-.09*
Indirect				---	.04	.13*	.20*
Total				.09	.22*	.16*	.10
3. Education							
Direct				.05	-.22*	-.14*	---
Indirect				---	.02	-.07	-.19*
Total				.05	-.20*	-.21*	-.19*
4. Global Empowerment							
Direct					.46*	.35*	.03*
Indirect					---	.21*	.45*
Total					.46*	.56*	.48*
5. Job Satisfaction							
Direct						.46*	.76*
Indirect						---	.09*
Total						.46*	.84*
6. Social Capital							
Direct							.19*
Indirect							---
Total							.19*
7. Job Commitment							
Direct							
Indirect							
Total							

Note: *Indicates significant unstandardized effect ($p < 0.05$, one-tailed test).

two variables is unmediated by another variable. While indirect effects take into account the effect that one variable has on another variable via one or more variables. Finally, total effects indicate the complete effect that one variable has on another including direct and indirect paths.

Social Capital

Direct Effect - Figure 4 indicates that several path coefficients are directly significant at the 0.05 level. Paths influencing social capital such as race, education, global empowerment, and job satisfaction are all significant. In general, White CNAs report fewer indications of social capital than Black CNAs. Correspondingly, Black CNAs are more reliant on fellow coworkers than are White CNAs. This indicates that Blacks are, at the very least, more attached to those in the organization than are Whites.

Social capital is also significantly related to a CNAs educational background. As noted in Figure 4, it appears that for every one standard deviation increase in education, social capital declines approximately 0.14 standard deviations. Thus, those with fewer years of education actually maintain higher levels of social capital in the organization. This may be indicative of closed off avenues for job attainment due to the limitation of ones education.

Additionally, social capital is also significantly related to global empowerment. Not surprisingly, CNAs who feel more empowered in the organization also tend to have higher levels of social capital. For every one standard deviation increase in global empowerment, a CNA's level of social capital can be expected to increase 0.35

standard deviations. It can be deduced that in the process of empowerment, CNAs necessarily rely on others in the organization to grasp onto empowering connections.

Finally, in regards to social capital, Figure 4 also indicates a significant coefficient with job satisfaction. In general, for every one standard deviation increase in job satisfaction, a CNA can be expected to increase ones social capital level by 0.46 standard deviations. As a CNA becomes more satisfied at work she or he builds more social capital, and in effect becomes more connected to the workplace.

Indirect Effects– Table 8 also indicates that there are several significant indirect effects on social capital. As mentioned earlier, indirect effects influence a variable through its manipulation of other variables. Both income and global empowerment significantly impact social capital via one or more variables. Income has a positive, significant indirect effect on social capital through job satisfaction, and possibly global empowerment. For every one standard deviation increase in income, social capital is expected to increase 0.13 standard deviations through its effect on job satisfaction and probably global empowerment. Thus, social capital is not directly influenced by income. However, the effects of income on other variables hold a significant role in impacting social capital.

Global empowerment also significantly, although indirectly, predicts social capital. For every one standard deviation increase in global empowerment, social capital increases .21 standard deviations via its effect on job satisfaction. As CNAs become empowered their level of satisfaction with their jobs increases which then has a significant impact on their levels of social capital.

Job Commitment

Direct Effects– Figure 4 also shows that job commitment is statistically associated with social capital, job satisfaction, and income. First, it appears that the more income a CNA earns the less committed to the organization they will be. A possible reason behind this statistic is that the more money one earns, the more choices and chances one can financially afford to take.

Expectedly, job commitment is also significantly influenced by job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is the strongest indicator of job commitment included in the model. For every one standard deviation increase in job satisfaction, job commitment is expected to increase 0.76 standard deviations, all being equal. It is apparent that a CNA who is satisfied on the job will be more committed to the organization.

Finally, job commitment is significantly shaped by social capital. Figure 4 indicates that the more social capital a CNA develops the more committed to the job she or he will be. It can be assumed that as one develops and strengthens relationships with those at work, the individual will have more connections that tie them to the organization.

Indirect Effects – Table 8 indicates that income, education, global empowerment, and job satisfaction indirectly and significantly influence job commitment. Income indirectly predicts job commitment through job satisfaction and possibly another variable such as global empowerment or social capital.

Additionally, education indirectly, yet significantly, predicts job commitment via another variable. For every one standard deviation increase in education, job

commitment is expected to decrease .19 standard deviations, via another variable such as job satisfaction, global empowerment, or social capital.

Likewise, global empowerment indirectly predicts job commitment through another variable such as social capital or job satisfaction. For every one standard deviation increase in global empowerment, job commitment will increase .45 standard deviations, through job satisfaction and/or social capital.

Finally, job satisfaction indirectly predicts job commitment via social capital. For every one standard deviation increase in job satisfaction, via social capital, job commitment is expected to increase .09 standard deviations.

Job Satisfaction

Direct Effects – The final model reveals that there are two statistically significant instigators of job satisfaction which are education and global empowerment. First, it appears that there is a negative relationship between job satisfaction and education. Similar to the relationship between education and social capital, the more educated CNAs are, the less likely they are to be satisfied on the job. Expectedly, as with many low level jobs, those who are educated often report being dissatisfied with their work.

As noted in earlier sections, global empowerment significantly effects job satisfaction. Figure 4 shows that for every one standard deviation increase in global empowerment, job satisfaction is expected to increase 0.46 standard deviations, holding all else constant. It is understandable that a CNA who is empowered at work is more likely to be satisfied with her or his job than one who does not feel empowered at work. Additionally, there are no significant indirect predictors of job satisfaction.

Race

In Figure 4, race acts as a predictor variable for income and education. In both cases, the relationship is statistically significant. Among the CNAs included in the study, it appears that Black CNAs report higher levels of education and income. Although at first thought this statistic may seem surprising, it actually may be more revealing of society at large. The CNA position is among the lowest in the health care industry, it is accompanied by low pay and little respect. It is within reason to argue that the job is not a significantly outstanding position. Thus it is often passed over by those with better options. The statistic in Figure 4 may illustrate the disparity between the races, in society at large, in that Whites with equal life chances are more likely to find a more agreeable position than are Blacks.

Total Effects and R^2

Total effects represent the combined effects of direct and indirect paths. While these effects are not visibly present in the final model they remain important. Some of the total effects do not have significant direct effects yet their bearing on the model is statistically significant. As noted in Table 8 there are significant total effects on job satisfaction, social capital, and job commitment.

Global Empowerment – As reported in the table, there are no significant factors influencing global empowerment. Thus it is not surprising that only 1% of the variation in global empowerment is explained by race, income, and education.

Job Satisfaction – Income, education, and global empowerment each have significant total effects on job satisfaction. First, the total effect of income on job

satisfaction is significant however; neither the direct or indirect effects are significant. Yet, the combined effect of income on job satisfaction is positively significant.

Next, the total effect of education on job satisfaction is negatively significant. The majority of this effect, as shown in Table 8, is by the direct path between education and job satisfaction. As noted earlier, the more education one has, the less satisfaction one reports. Additionally, global empowerment has a significant total effect on job satisfaction. As with education, the total effect is due to the direct relationship between the variables. Moreover, about 28% of the variation in job satisfaction is accounted for by race, income, education, and global empowerment.

Social Capital – All variables in the model have a significant total effect on social capital, aside from job commitment which is positively influenced by it. Primarily due to direct effects, race, education, and job satisfaction has a significant effect on social capital. Interestingly, income has a significant total effect on social capital largely through its indirect effects. Finally, global empowerment has a positively significant total effect on social capital partially due to its significant indirect and direct effects. Notably, race, income, education, global empowerment, and job satisfaction explain approximately 54% of the variation in social capital.

Job Commitment – Education, global empowerment, job satisfaction, and social capital have significant total effects on job commitment. Notably, race has no direct or indirect effect on job commitment. In fact, Table 8 shows that incomes indirect effects on job commitment cancel out any significant direct effects. Global empowerment and education, mostly due to indirect effects has significant total effects on job commitment; while job satisfaction and social capital have strong direct effects on job commitment.

Finally, this model explains an unanticipated 80% of the variation in job commitment by taking into account race, income, education, global empowerment, job satisfaction, and social capital.

Summary

It is worthy to note that there appears to be no direct, indirect, or total effects which significantly impact global empowerment. Equally worthy of note in this analysis is that all variables included in the analysis have a significant relationship with social capital. As the key variable of interest, it appears that Black CNAs in general, have more social capital than do White CNAs. Additionally, the more educated a CNA is the less social capital they report. However, variables such as income, global empowerment, and job satisfaction positively influence social capital. In turn, social capital significantly influences job commitment. Thus, CNAs who are paid well, empowered and hence satisfied are most likely to have strong social capital and stay with the organization. This is understandable in that happy CNAs, or any kind of worker, is more likely to invest in their social surroundings and be more committed to the workplace.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

Introduction

This research has been conducted in an attempt to understand the causes and consequences of social capital in the organizational setting. Utilizing Kanter's (1993) theory on organizational (job) commitment, this research has constructed the foundation of her theory with the added component of social capital. Social capital is new to organizational literature, though it has always existed in other forms, such as informal power. This is an attempt to open the closed doors and show the utility of social capital in the workplace. What follows is a discussion of the study and how it was carried out, an assessment of the statistics represented in Chapter III, and finally, a summary of the findings and their relation to the original hypotheses.

Review of the Study

This study is focused on the role of social capital in organizations. Specifically, it spotlights the role that social capital plays among 235 certified nurse aides (CNAs) in nursing homes. The findings that follow are a result of a larger study focused on work teams. However, information gathered under its direction allow for the study and placement of social capital. The larger study measures the level of global empowerment, job satisfaction, job commitment, and other demographics, each of which are taken into account in this analysis. This study assumes that global empowerment predicts job satisfaction, social capital, and job commitment. It also argues that job satisfaction influences social capital and commitment. Initial estimates

stipulate that job commitment impacts an employee's intent to quit. Each of these paths was estimated while taking into account race, income, and education. Although, specific statistical information can be found in Chapter III, this chapter is aimed at understanding what the statistics indicate in the theory of organizations and social capital.

Summary of the Findings

This section will review the key statistics presented earlier in terms of their relation to previous studies. Briefly, Kanter's theory argued that organizational commitment begins with empowerment. Empowerment directly affects job satisfaction which in turn predicts job commitment (Kanter, 1993). Additionally, social capital plays a mediating role in influencing job commitment. Social capital is positively associated with job satisfaction and global empowerment. Furthermore, income and education take on significant roles in predicting job commitment, either directly or indirectly.

Predictors of Organizational Commitment

Previous studies have argued that job commitment is influenced by job satisfaction. Ashman and Winstanley (2006) posit that an employee who is highly satisfied on the job is more likely to stay with the organization. This appears to be statistically true. This research shows that job satisfaction has a significant positive effect on job commitment. A worker who is satisfied with her or his job is more likely to stay with the organization and to feel committed to the organization. Other research fails to identify the significant indirect paths between job satisfaction and job commitment through social capital. Theoretically, Kanter (1993) posited that informal power, or the

behind the scenes relationships at work, has an effect on organizational commitment. Her assumptions on this relationship prove to be statistically correct. The indirect path between job satisfaction and job commitment through social capital appears to be statistically significant in this study. Job satisfaction has a directly positive relationship with job commitment as previously established. However, this relationship is also significant indirectly through social capital. Therefore, it can be stated that a worker who is highly satisfied at work is more likely to reach out to others and form the bonds and relationships that cement one's tenure in the organization.

At this point, it is also necessary to note that in addition to its indirect role, social capital directly influences job commitment as well. Theorists, such as Granovetter (1982) have long argued that weak ties, or acquaintance-based relationships, similar to those in the workplace, bind workers to the organization. This study dictates that there is a positive significant relationship between social capital and job commitment. Thus, a worker who has more relationships within the workplace is not only tied to those actors but also to the organization itself. It is possible that individuals or fellow workers represent the embodiment of the organization to a worker. Therefore, the more relationships a worker has at work, the stronger her or his tie with the organization will be.

Furthermore, the ties that are created in the workplace can also be viewed as a form of informal power. As discussed earlier, Kanter (1993) argued that informal power, while difficult to measure, is an equally influential source of control in the organization. Informal power is often identified as the clout which builds from the social relations that are maintained at work. This type of power differs from formal power because it is not

assigned with job the actor takes on; rather it is cultivated through backchannels of sponsors, mentors, peers, and comrades in the organization (Kanter, 1993). The role of social capital which has been identified in this study indicates that CNAs may not have formal power that is conferred to them in their job title but they do have informal power through avenues of social capital. Thus, it can be inferred that CNAs with more social capital and social connections also benefit from the affects that informal power, by means of social capital, brings with it.

Another key relationship in the prediction of job commitment is global empowerment. According to Kanter (1993), global empowerment has an indirect but not direct effect on job commitment. She posited that an indirect relationship could only be possible if a worker was satisfied with her or his job. This study reveals that global empowerment does in fact have a statistically significant relationship with job commitment, in an indirect manner. As Kanter stated there is not a significant direct effect between global empowerment and job commitment. However, it is interesting to note that there are two statistically significant indirect paths between global empowerment and job commitment when social capital is taken into account. As Kanter predicted, global empowerment predicts job satisfaction, which in turn predicts job commitment. This path from global empowerment to job satisfaction is significant.

Yet there is also a significant set of paths from global empowerment to job satisfaction then through social capital and on to job commitment. Thus, as Kanter argued, it is true that global empowerment predicts job commitment via job satisfaction. This study argues that there is another significant pathway through social capital. Job commitment does appear to have a positive relationship with global empowerment by

way of job satisfaction; however, there is an added possibility of increasing job commitment through social capital. Therefore, a worker who is empowered is more likely to be satisfied on the job. A satisfied worker is more likely to stay with the organization. Additionally, a satisfied worker is more likely to reach out to others in the organization and become more committed to the organization through this avenue. There are two ways a worker goes from being empowered to committed, first, the worker may become highly satisfied with their job, and this alone ties them to the organization; or it is possible for the empowered worker to foster camaraderie within the workplace which then ties her or him to the organization. Regardless of the path, it is interesting to note that there is not a significant, direct path from empowerment to commitment, just as Kanter theorized.

In addition to these key relationships, this study takes into account the role of income, education, and race. Previous theorists such as Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) have argued that these variables are highly correlated with job commitment. This study argues that income does in fact have a significant impact on job commitment. However, this relationship is negatively correlated. In addition, Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) maintained that education is negatively correlated with job commitment. In line with their study, it does appear that those who are more educated tend to be less committed to the organization. It can be assumed that those who are more educated have more economic choices in the job market than those who are not as highly educated. It is interesting to note that there appears to be no relationship between race and job commitment.

Predictors of Social Capital

In line with Putnam's (2000) predictions in *Bowling Alone*, education is negatively correlated with social capital. Putnam argued that individuals who are more educated tend to volunteer more and create more social capital. However, as Putnam noted, income and education work in a coordinated manner in predicting social capital. The relationship between education and income is paramount to understanding the negative correlation presented in this study. Those who are less educated tend to work more hours and have less time for social capital construction than those who are overly educated. Yet this does not take into account relationships within the workplace, which is the focus of this research. Putnam argued that those with lower incomes who tend to be less educated have stronger ties to others because these individuals need the ties for everyday support, such as rides to the doctor's office and child care. However, those in the middle class tend to be too busy for relationships outside of work and family. Those in the upper class tend to foster social capital in many different directions of the social environment.

This study is focused on those in the lower income bracket which Putnam argued have strong relationships and strong levels of social capital. Although this study does not find any direct significant relationship between income and social capital, it does find that education has a negative relationship with social capital. Thus, in the workplace, those who are more educated tend to have less social capital. It is argued here that this is parallel to Putnam's findings. Lower class workers have fewer social capital bonds in formal secondary associations. They are dependent on relationships with those of equal, or below, hierarchical status in the organization.

Thus, it can be argued that those with less education have effectively learned how to utilize the resources and people around them to their advantage. Lower class individuals, out of necessity, create a web of connection for everyday living. In the workplace, this pattern of connection is maintained. Those who are less educated are more aware of the resources that others represent in the workplace. Someone who is more educated may already have access to information or feel a sense of embarrassment in asking for help. Yet, for the lower class, fostering connections of social capital is an ingrained avenue of success.

As noted previously, Kanter (1993) argued that informal power is important in the workplace. Informal power is construed as the relationships individuals maintain in the workplace. However, no known research exists which measures the role of informal networks of power. This study, however, argues that job satisfaction and global empowerment cultivate social capital. Simply, individuals who are more satisfied and empowered in the workplace tend to have more relationships. Job satisfaction and global empowerment significantly influence social capital. Workers who feel empowered and satisfied are more likely to reach out to others in the organization than those who are not.

Finally, Putnam (2000) and McAdam (1982) argued that social capital tends to be higher with Black populations due to the historical bonding role of the Black Church. As illustrated in the social capital construction utilized in the Civil Rights Era, social capital is greatly fostered in the Black community through the Church. During the Civil Rights Era, the Church was utilized as a meeting place, safe haven, and office space in churches across the country (McAdam, 1982). Putnam (2000) argued that the

connection among the Black population is stronger than the White population due to previous cultural connections. This study affirms the argument, indicating that Black workers tend have higher levels of social capital than do White workers. Comparably, this study argues that a possible reason for the racial disparity in social capital is in fact due to historical factors.

In summation, social capital is fostered in the workplace by a myriad of factors. Race and education both significantly influence the likelihood of individuals creating organizational bonds. Organizational social capital can also be established through global empowerment and job satisfaction. Thus, workers who are Black, slightly less educated than their peers, and who are happy with their jobs tend have the highest levels of social capital in the organization. To note, although income does not directly affect an individual's level of social capital, the indirect effects are statistically significant. That is to say that the relationship between income and education is strong enough to affect a workers level of social capital.

Predictors of Job Satisfaction and Global Empowerment

As established earlier, global empowerment is a significant indicator of job satisfaction. Kanter (1993) previously established this theoretical and statistical link. It is argued that an individual who is empowered in the workplace is also satisfied. Additionally, this research argues that job satisfaction and global empowerment are predicted by income, race, and education. Although these relationships are not the primary focus of this research, it is worthy of note. Interestingly, income does not have a significant direct effect on global empowerment or job satisfaction. This argues that

satisfaction and empowerment cannot be bought by industries and must be established through social avenues. Finally, this research shows that education influences job satisfaction but not global empowerment. This finding suggests that empowerment must be fostered by the organization and cannot be previously stipulated by the worker's individual attributes.

Assessment of the Findings in Relation to the Hypotheses

To assess the findings noted above, a review of the previously stated hypotheses from Chapter I is necessary. Due to the statistical method employed in this study the hypotheses are presented as three core sets of intertwining relationships.

First, it was hypothesized earlier that social capital acts as a mediator between job satisfaction and job commitment. In addition, it was argued that global empowerment indirectly effected intent to quit through social capital. These relationships are depicted in Figure 5. The results of this research indicate that the indirect effect of job satisfaction on job commitment via social capital is significant. This finding is similar to Burt's (1992) suggestion which argued that those who are embedded in the workplace are more likely to be strongly committed to the organization. Therefore, this research and Burt's (1992) study affirm the idea that workers with more interpersonal ties to others in the organization tend to be more committed to the organization as a whole. It is rational to argue that when workers form bonds with their fellow workers in the organization a sense of camaraderie is established. Allowing for a sense of oneness among workers enables the organization to maintain a group of committed workers. Under this application, workers begin to see the organization as a

set of relationships with their peers and not as a foreign object they are unable to influence. Perhaps it is the relationships that are built within the organization which allow workers to affect the workplace, or at least to feel as though they have a voice within the organization.

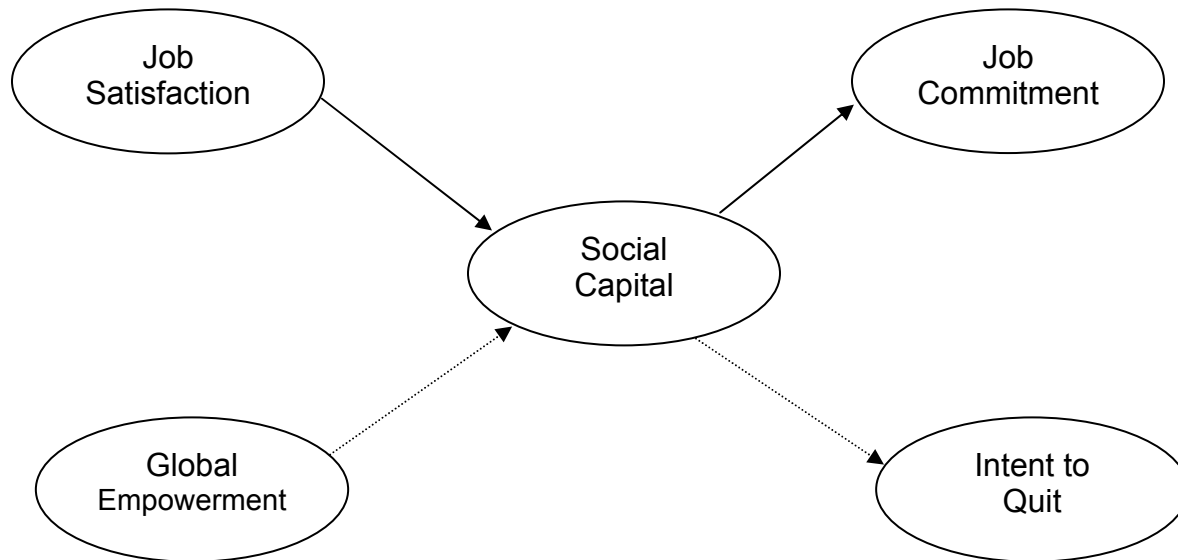


Figure 5. First-set of core relationships being tested.

As an appendage to the first set of relationships, it was previously stated that social capital mediates the association between global empowerment and intent to quit. Unfortunately, the intent to quit variable did not produce results in line with an acceptable model and had to be dropped from the analysis. However, the intent to quit variable acted as a reverse check for the job commitment variable. Thus, it is possible to reframe this hypothesis and still retain a usable conclusion. This research reveals that social capital acts as a mediating variable between global empowerment and job commitment. Workers with relationships in the organization are more likely to be committed to the organization; however, this relationship is true regardless of

empowerment. Thus, even a worker who is not empowered in the workplace can be highly committed to the organization if she or he maintains stable relationships. Nevertheless, this research illustrates that workers who are empowered tend to have higher levels of social capital than workers who are not empowered. Again, it should be noted that an empowered worker without any form of social capital is not likely to be tied to the organization.

The second set of core relationships tested in this analysis argues that job satisfaction and global empowerment are directly and indirectly influenced by income and education; these relationships are illustrated in Figure 6. The findings of this research partially support Okpara's (2004) and Bilgic's (1998) assumptions that there is a positive association between job satisfaction and global empowerment with an individual's income and education. In fact, there appears to be no direct significant relationship among the four variables aside from the association between education, global empowerment, and job satisfaction. However, the total effects of income on job satisfaction remains significant. This research argues that although income does not have a direct effect on empowerment or satisfaction, it does have significant total effects on job satisfaction. Thus, a worker with a strong income is more likely to be empowered and it is the act of empowerment which creates a satisfied worker, not necessarily the salary one makes.

It is also interesting to note what this research did not substantiate. Previous research, as noted above, argued that a worker with a stronger income would be more satisfied on the job. However, this direct relationship does not appear to be true. Income

does not play a significant role in influencing a worker's global empowerment or job satisfaction.

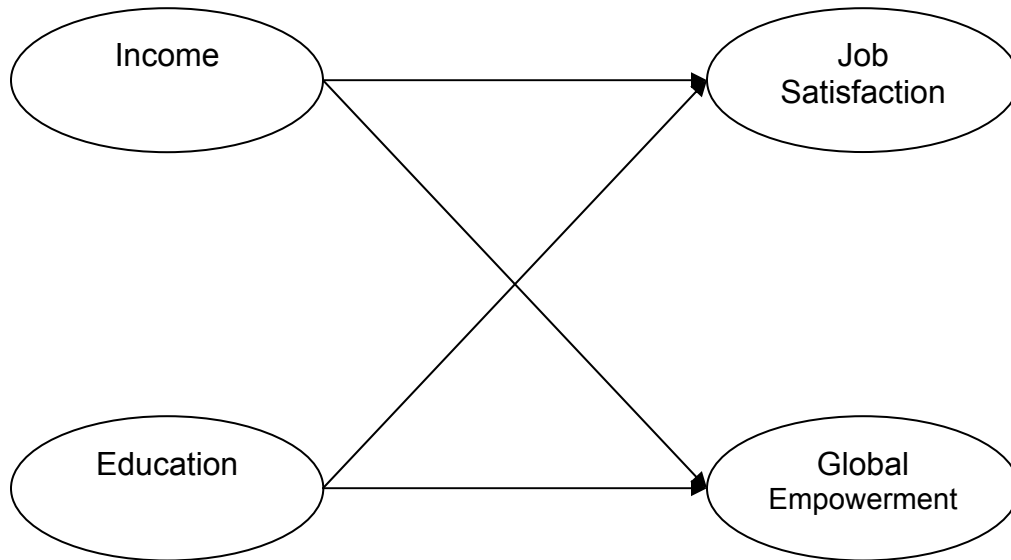


Figure 6. Second-set of core relationships being tested.

Previous research has also argued that education has a significant direct and indirect effect on global empowerment and job satisfaction (Okpara, 2004; Bilgic, 1998). Again, this research can only partially support this claim. This analysis indicates that there is not a direct relationship between education and empowerment. Therefore, the level of education a worker maintains has nothing to do with whether or not she or he is an empowered worker. Conversely, this research acknowledges the assertion that education influences job satisfaction, though not in the manner previously acknowledged. The findings of this study show that there is a negative relationship between education and job satisfaction. Additionally, the total effects of education on job satisfaction are significant which supports the conclusion that education is negatively correlated with job satisfaction. Thus, less educated workers tend to be more satisfied

with their jobs than higher educated workers. It is rational to assume that the more education a worker has, the more choices she or he has in employment opportunities.

The final set of relationships hypothesized argues that race shapes an individual's level of income and education (shown in Figure 7). This study reveals that this relationship is true. Race is a significant indicator of income and education. Furthermore, in this study, White CNAs appear to have less education and income than Black CNAs. This is in contrast to Kane and Spizman's research which states that Whites tend to have higher values of income and education than Blacks (1994). Within the CNA population it can be argued that this is due to the low status of the job itself and relatively low pay. It is argued here that this anomaly must be viewed in relation to the larger society. Jobs which are thought to be unattractive are often overlooked by members of society who can afford to pass them by. Less advantaged members of society are left with certain jobs that dominant groups find less appealing. Therefore, Black CNAs actually attain their positions with more education, beckoning more income, than White CNAs. While it is generally assumed that in the larger population Whites maintain, on average, higher levels of education and income, this cannot be stated as true for the CNA population.

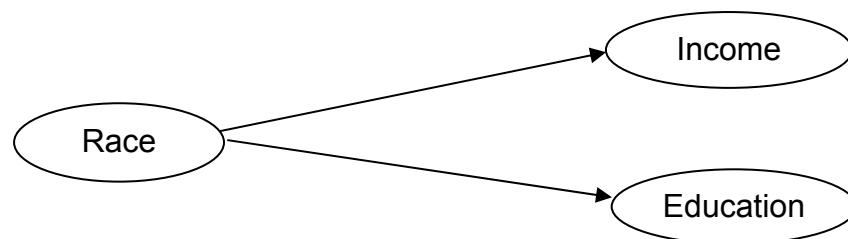


Figure 7. Third-set of core relationships being tested.

Theoretical Contribution of Findings

As noted earlier, the relationships and structure in the organization first posited by Kanter remain true in this analysis. However, this study is unique because it places the role of social capital in with the constructs identified by Kanter (1993). Theoretically, Kanter argued that workers who are empowered will be more committed to the organization because they will be more satisfied with their jobs. While this structure has been identified and repeated in this analysis, it is also recognized that social capital plays an important role in constructing job commitment.

This research does not oppose Kanter's theoretical framework; rather it is enhanced by the notion of social capital. As noted in the previous sections, workers who are empowered are not simply committed to the organization, but rather they first formulate relationships within the workplace that help anchor them among their fellow workers. When workers feel empowered and as though their work matters to the organization, they do in fact become satisfied in their jobs as Kanter stated. However, it should also be noted that satisfied workers who construct a net of social relationships around them become linked to the organization through those relationship, thus increasing their job commitment.

Social capital should be viewed as a complement to Kanter's original analysis because it highlights the social aspect of her organizational theory. To run fluidly, organizations should have a strong internal social network, or high social capital. Social capital allows for members or actors to exchange information, accept another's differences, and generally create an atmosphere of oneness within the organization.

Finally, social capital is of key importance to Kanter's conclusions on organizational commitment because this study illustrates that a worker does not necessarily have to be empowered or satisfied on the job, but they can become attached to the organization through social capital itself. So while Kanter's original model still stands, her theoretical and social analysis of organizational commitment is incomplete without the addition of social capital.

Conclusion

In conclusion, it appears that some hypotheses were proved to be true while others dispute previous theoretical assumptions. Of key importance to this study is the finding that social capital plays a mediating role in cementing job commitment. In fact, without any of Kanter's (1993) previous organizational relationships present, social capital alone can maintain a worker's level of job commitment.

Furthermore, it is interesting to note that global empowerment does not seem to be significantly influenced by any of the factors in this model. Although it was not the aim of this research to identify these variables, the lack of relationship between income and education with global empowerment is noteworthy. This suggests that employers cannot buy global empowerment however they can purchase job satisfaction. This study finds that job satisfaction is influenced by a worker's level of income. Concerning empowerment, it is also notable that global empowerment does not directly influence job commitment; therefore the only role that global empowerment plays in this analysis is in creating job satisfaction.

Finally, it is also interesting that this research reveals underlying social issues surrounding race and employment options. Within the CNA population, it appears that Whites are less educated than Blacks. Put another way, the disparity between the races is concerning, and causes of this differentiation should be examined fully.

The model that was proposed in earlier chapters reveals significant findings about organizational schematics. There is evidence represented in this analysis that organizational theory should incorporate into its models the subject of social capital. Social capital has the sole ability to increase job commitment. It is also significantly associated with job satisfaction, global empowerment, education, and race. This study exposes enough information concerning social capital in the organization that a form of organizational social capital can be instituted from this point on. That is to say that the relationships formed in the workplace are helpful not only to the individual but to the organization itself. The weight or burden which is simultaneously relieved and fastened by the role of organizational social capital is worth further investigation. The results of this analysis preliminarily suggest that social capital at work reinforces a sense of stability within the worker, coworkers, and organization. The following chapter aims at revealing the important implications of these findings for both organizational literature and policy ramifications.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

Introduction

The role of this chapter is to discuss the limitations, implications, and areas for future research. Nowhere else is social capital more needed than by those who work long hours caring for another's loved ones. These workers need to know they are not alone and that others understand what they are giving. Certified nurse aides (CNAs) need to be able to discuss their problems with each other and their supervisors, if for no other reason than the care of the residents that is put in their hands. It is presumed that CNAs who have a history and are well-acquainted with their patients are able to understand their needs better. This study shows that social capital has the ability to increase commitment to the organization and thus increase the tenure of CNAs and the relationships with their patients.

Despite the need for such a study in organizations, there remain limitations to its capabilities. Many of the limitations listed below surround the analysis itself, other limitations are based on sampling and conceptualization. It is noted that the list of limitations below is not exhaustive but an attempt to underscore some of the more important restrictions of the study.

In addition to the limitations, this chapter argues for further research into the field of social capital. Many researchers are arguing the same case, at least theoretically. However, some statistical areas of future research in the area of social capital are also acknowledged herein.

Finally, this study claims that social capital can affect the organization's internal workings. It has been shown that job commitment can be influenced by social capital. Thus, it is possible for management to increase worker commitment and decrease turnover by fostering social capital among its workers. Policy initiatives surrounding the cultivation of social capital are discussed below.

Study Limitations

Despite the unique perspective given in this study, limitations do exist. What follows is not an exhaustive list but rather an attempt to familiarize the reader with some of the key limitations of this study. One possible limitation of this study is that social capital is not accurately measured through all possible relationships. As a certified nurse aide in a nursing home, it is possible that the social capital built between the aides and the patients is a viable source of social capital which is not measured in this study. It can be conceived that a CNA may hold onto her or his job for the sake of a few residents.

Another relationship which has the potential to greatly influence workers is the rapport between CNAs and the human resource (HR) department within the organization. Often times, the HR department is the first resource available to workers when a dispute arises. HR departments are often couched with the responsibilities of handling complaints and concerns expressed by the workers. For this reason the HR department and its officers are potential sources of social capital in the organization. Despite this possible beneficial relationship between CNAs and the HR department, this

study does not take into account the relationships which may develop in this area or the ramifications of such developments.

Additionally, although attempts were made to operationalize social capital according to its three main constructs of respect, trust, and support, it is possible that this study did not effectively tap into the essence of social capital. Previous studies, such as Putnam's (2000), have used multiple indicators of the three core constructs. Putnam had the added advantage to measure the actual physical embodiment of social capital such as items like 'spending time with friends' or 'going out to dinner with a close friend'. This study was more limited in the number of items assigned to each of the constructs, yet it is believed that each item is assigned correctly.

Another limitation is that the sample only includes 10 nursing homes in the Dallas-Ft. Worth metropolitan area. Restrictions need to be applied when generalizing to the population due to the limited sample. CNAs in this study were all from a specific part of Texas. It is entirely possible that their recognition of the CNA experience is different from someone else in a different area of the nation or abroad. Along with this, it should be noted that some of the nursing homes were owned by a common company that practiced similar organizational systems. It is possible that the hierarchy and policy in place in these nursing homes had similar effects on the CNAs and issues of social capital and commitment could be defined by these common practices. Furthermore, due to the population, it may be important to have given the instruments in an alternative language such as Spanish or an African dialect. Through the course of the study it was apparent that although the majority of aides were able to speak English, they may have understood the essence of the questions better if a translator had been provided.

In terms of the statistical analysis, it is clear that the limited sample size restricted the boundaries of the analysis. As noted previously, two bi-directional paths could not be tested because of limited numbers. The bi-directional paths were first engaged to establish a theoretical feedback loop between social capital, empowerment, and job satisfaction. Additionally, although theoretically relevant, many first and second-order latent variables were limited due to the sample size as well. It is recognized in this study that the modest sample size caused many issues in the analysis.

Another limitation that arose during the course of the analysis was the issue of collinearity. In one aspect, it is positive to know that the role of social capital is extremely entangled in the organizational process. However, on the other side is the argument that due to such high collinearity, the proper separation of constructs was at the researcher's discretion. Here it is noted that the researcher was exceedingly aware of the issue and used both theoretical and statistical indicators to make the best choice. Regardless, it may be possible the correct assessment was not made and this decision is left to each reader.

While analyzing, it became apparent that another important construct existed in the statistical framework which was not separately accounted for in Kanter's estimates. This factor is based on the issue of information flow. Many of the collinearity issues were dealt with by removing information based items from the analysis. Yet, it is noted that a key theoretical limitation of this study is that the construct of information was not utilized.

Future Research

The aim of this research was to implement the theoretical arguments surrounding social capital's position in the organization. Many researchers and economists alike may recognize that workplaces are no longer the crowded mass production factories of the early 1900's. What was needed then is extremely different from what is needed now. It is the hope of this research that those who read it begin to see workers as more than a set of hands but as whole humans. These humans, as all humans, are social beings with social needs. Despite some economist's views, humans need more than a paycheck.

As noted in the discussion chapter, one of the arguments that can be construed from this study is that social relations are not to be ignored or dismissed but to be fostered in a positive light. In fact, as this study indicates, social relations or social capital as it is measured here has the ability to foster job commitment. This research and future research should recognize that workers want more than a place to waste away hours of their day for preset pay, workers want to make difference, they want to enjoy what they do; what worker would not?

It is simple to state that future research needs to be conducted on social capital in organizations. Few have theorized about the role of organizational social capital and fewer have statistically established it. This research is an attempt at a beginning. From here, it is hoped that researchers work to reestablish the humanity in the worker by creating the foundation of social capital in organizations. Specifically, future research should try to understand the role of information. Information, in and out of the workplace, has acted as a threat over those who do not have it. The networks created

through social capital are information exchange avenues. This is especially pertinent in a healthcare organization, such as nursing homes, where parents and grandparents' lives are bounded by its flow.

While it is noted that this research stands as a beginning future research should also try to understand how the relationships which were tested and established concerning CNAs can be transposed onto higher social status occupations such as doctors, professors, dentists, etc. It would be beneficial for organizational literature to reproduce the structure established in Kanter's work and measure its practicality within a variety of occupations. It is altogether possible that those, especially in the higher echelons of occupational status, whose work is often solitary and self-defined, may in fact exhibit different characteristics of commitment, satisfaction, empowerment, or social capital.

While this call goes out to future research, the implementation or promotion of social capital vehicles is more restrained. Social capital is based on trust. Many will agree that trust cannot be created overnight. Trust takes time; relationships take time; and effort too. People are aware of when they are being taken advantage of and the role of social capital should not be violated in the organization. There is a fear that once trust is abused, it may be gone forever. Future research should stick to the motto present in many healthcare professions, 'first do no harm.' Society, organizations, and humanity cannot suffer a blow so extreme as to lose the weak ties of trust that have in each other now.

In addition to this call, future research should follow up on the indicator present in this research, which is that race plays an important role in cultivating social capital.

Social capital is a new area of interest for many and little has been established as to the cultural differentiation between the value and creation of social capital. It is unknown how different ethnicities or cultures value social capital. If research knew how to deliver the message of social capital specifically to each individual, there would be a better chance of understanding and incorporating its positive features. Furthermore, as noted in the previous chapter, it is fully possible that historical differences between the races play a role in how each individual constructs social capital and relationships. In the workplace individuals are forced to work with others of varying backgrounds, research should attempt to understand each possible cultural background and how relationships can be created and continuous across racial boundaries. Despite the highlight on racial disparities in this analysis, it is requested that researchers learn to appreciate the range of choices available to workers in creating sustainable relationships. What one racial group relies on as a viable avenue may have been overlooked by another racial group. This is a key opportunity to learn from other races and to acknowledge and incorporate what each race can bring to the challenge.

In addition, the findings of this research reveal a possible economic based disparity between the racial categories identified in the study. The social implications of this research suggest that Black CNAs do not follow the same path of job prospects as White CNAs. This remains true despite the fact that many Black CNAs in this study were more educated than White CNAs, revealing that White CNAs with equal education as Black CNAs in the nursing homes find better employment elsewhere.

Finally, as with most social capital research, efforts are initially made to understand the positive effects of social capital. However, this is an incomplete picture.

Further research should also focus on the negative instances of social capital in the organization. This research should be alert as to its audience and keep in mind its power. It is possible for social capital to be positive for the low-wage worker but negative for the corporation's financial assessors and owners. It is also possible for social capital to have negative effects on the customers of the industry yet positive effects for the workers and/or the bosses. Efforts in this field should follow the path networks theory has paved and not underestimate the power of social capital.

Policy Implications

Many researchers and business analysts agree that high levels of commitment are beneficial for industry. Turnover depletes the organizational resources of pre-established knowledge; a company invests in each worker. The findings of this research suggest that policy which increases social capital can influence job commitment. If individuals are allowed to create relationships within the workplace it can be assumed that they will talk to each other more, and more freely. Along with this interaction, it can be expected that information will be exchanged more openly. Organizations should allow for workers to create these relationships. Although this argument may be confused with downtime on the job, it is not. The simple act of scheduling the same workers at the same time continuously will eventually build relationships. When workers see each other on a regular basis they become invested in each other, familiarized with each others customs and work habits. When workers know what to expect from each other they begin to lower their guards and trust can be established. Social capital literature has recognized that trust is the foundation of social capital.

In order to establish social capital, informal relationships need to be brokered. There are many pathways to this, but several exist outside of mainstream Taylorized industry. The policy implications of this study resonate in the simple fact that workers are human and in need of human relations. Corporations allowing workers to create social capital have a better chance of maintaining their workers and their investments. Future policy should work to recreate the tools exhausted to study the organization of work. Social capital is a single perspective which can shed some light on the changes in organizations, however new models and methods of understanding organizations need to be established.

Conclusion

Humans are involved in many different social relationships each day. Some of these relationships maintain, others harm, but all affect an individual's humanity. The social relations that are formed sustain that humanity. They create outlets for fears, joy, sorrow, amazement, and confusion in life. High-stress workers, whose job it is care for another need these outlets more than anyone. The connection between workers is based on social capital. It would be careless of future research to try to understand the organization without understanding the humanity that exists within its workers. To ignore it is a faulty bias that society cannot afford. Furthermore, organizations are neglecting an area of incumbent power. Social capital avenues exist now in every organization where humans roam. Social capital is an area of untapped resources which could be potentially vital to the sustenance of the organization. The summation of the limitations, implications, and future research can be situated on the focus of understanding and

fostering social capital in organizations. To foster organizational social capital is a win-win situation for the workers and the organization. Workers feel as though they are more connected, informed, and empowered in the workplace; while organizations retain workers who are knowledgeable about their internal system.

Research is just now beginning to understand the importance of human relations among workers. Full understanding may never happen, yet further understanding is beckoned. The very least researchers can do is try to implement a model of the organization that takes into account the actors which organizations often abuse. It is the argument of this research that social capital literature is the first step to understanding the connections in the workplace and what sustains them. To effectively model and implement them is our future.

APPENDIX
SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Please use the following scale to answer the questions below:

1-----2-----3-----4-----5
Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Agree
Strongly Strongly

- _____ 1. My job is a meaningful one.
- _____ 2. When I ask for information related to my work or the residents, I usually get it right away.
- _____ 3. I am NOT always able to make sure each resident has eaten all that she or he wants.
- _____ 4. Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with my job.
- _____ 5. I feel a strong sense of belonging to this nursing home.
- _____ 6. I feel that I am a valuable person, at least as valuable as others.
- _____ 7. I feel burned out from my work.
- _____ 8. I feel I treat some residents as if they were impersonal objects.
- _____ 9. I feel I am positively influencing other people's lives through my work.
- _____ 10. The procedures (or steps) that the nurse aides use, to care for residents, are effective (good).
- _____ 11. I do NOT have all the skills and knowledge needed to do a good job.
- _____ 12. The nurse aides decide who will do what each day.
- _____ 13. I feel frustrated by my job.
- _____ 14. I sometimes provide new ideas at work that are used.
- _____ 15. The charge nurses listen to the suggestions of CNAs.
- _____ 16. When CNAs make suggestions on how to do their work, the management staff (such as the administrator and DON) considers their suggestions seriously.
- _____ 17. Nurse aides have to rely on the "grapevine" or rumors for information.
- _____ 18. Doing a good job at work is rewarded with higher pay.
- _____ 19. CNAs who do a good job are recognized for their good work.
- _____ 20. I have a break room or other private area I can use when I take a break.
- _____ 21. Usually, we have enough CNAs working to do a good job.
- _____ 22. I have the support that I need from the other nurse aides to do a good job.

1-----2-----3-----4-----5
Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Agree
Strongly Strongly

- ____ 23. I can easily understand how my residents feel about things.
- ____ 24. I will probably not be working as a nurse aide at this nursing home in a year from now.
- ____ 25. I am NOT always able to turn the residents in bed when they should be turned.
- ____ 26. Nurse aides use effective (or good) procedures (or steps) for caring for residents.
- ____ 27. I have accomplished many worthwhile (good) things in this job.
- ____ 28. The management staff (such as the DON and administrator) listen to the suggestions of CNAs.
- ____ 29. When CNAs make suggestions on how to do the work, charge nurses seriously consider them.
- ____ 30. I sometimes provide solutions to problems at work that are used.
- ____ 31. The CNAs decide on the order in which to do things.
- ____ 32. If a CNA suggestion is not used, the CNAs are usually provided reasons why.
- ____ 33. When a new resident is admitted, I am given all the information I need about the new resident.
- ____ 34. Usually, we do NOT have enough CNAs working to do a good job.
- ____ 35. Whenever CNA work must be changed, the CNAs are usually asked how they think the work should be changed.
- ____ 36. I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my residents.
- ____ 37. I can trust the other nurse aides I work with to lend me a hand if I need it.
- ____ 38. I am currently looking for another job but not at this nursing home.
- ____ 39. I am NOT always able to ask each resident if she or he needs anything.

1-----2-----3-----4-----5
Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Agree
Strongly Strongly

- ___ 40. My job is a very satisfying one.
- ___ 41. I do NOT feel a strong sense of belonging to this nursing home.
- ___ 42. I feel I do NOT have much to be proud of.
- ___ 43. I feel used up at the end of my shift.
- ___ 44. I've become less sensitive toward people since I took the job.
- ___ 45. I deal very effectively with the problems of my residents.
- ___ 46. When I need supplies or work materials, I can usually get them (such as towels, gowns, etc.).
- ___ 47. The procedures we use to care for residents are effective (good).
- ___ 48. The CNAs provide information that is used in a resident's care plan.
- ___ 49. I sometimes suggest new ways for doing the work that are used.
- ___ 50. I am given regular updated information on any changes that have occurred with the residents.
- ___ 51. I am sometimes forced to work overtime.
- ___ 52. There are usually enough CNAs working to do a good job.
- ___ 53. CNAs listen to each other's suggestions for how to do their work.
- ___ 54. I frequently think of leaving this nursing home and working some where else.
- ___ 55. The CNAs decide the procedures for getting residents to the dining room.
- ___ 56. I take a positive attitude toward myself.
- ___ 57. I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.
- ___ 58. I have all the skills and knowledge I need to do a good job, and I use them.
- ___ 59. I do not get as many weekends off as I would like.
- ___ 60. CNAs are asked to help make decisions about their work.
- ___ 61. At times I think I am no good at all.
- ___ 62. I am NOT satisfied with the number of days I am given to work per pay period.
- ___ 63. Working with people all day is really a strain on me.

1-----2-----3-----4-----5
Disagree Strongly **Disagree** **Neutral** **Agree** **Agree Strongly**

- ___ 64. I feel residents blame me for some of their problems.
- ___ 65. I am able to do things as well as most other people.
- ___ 66. I usually take care of the same residents each day.
- ___ 67. About how many residents are you responsible for each day?
- ___ 68. About how many of these residents have trouble thinking well (get confused easily)?
- ___ 69. About how many of these have **serious** trouble thinking well (don't know where they are)?

70. How good is your nursing home at **quickly** helping residents with skin problems?
 (please circle one)

1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10
 Not very good Okay Very Good

71. How good is your nursing home at **quickly** helping residents who are losing weight? (please circle one)

1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10
 Not very good Okay Very Good

72. Which shift do you **usually** work on (circle one)?

A. morning

B. afternoon

C. night

73. Which building/floor/wing do you usually work on?

74. How many CNAs usually work during your shift (counting any special CNAs such as those that give showers, do toileting, etc.)?

75. How many CNAs usually work during your shift (counting any special CNAs such as those that give showers, do toileting, etc.)?

76. How many CNAs are usually needed to work on your shift?

77. When thinking about the CNAs who usually work during your shift, how many do you consider to be:
- ☐ a. very close friends?
 - ☐ b. good friends but not very close friends? (do not include CNAs counted in #4 above)
 - ☐ c. just friends? (do not include CNAs counted in #4 or #5 above)
 - ☐ d. not friends at all? (do not include CNAs counted in #4, #5, or #6 above)
78. What is the highest grade level you have completed?
79. Sex:
80. Age:
81. Are you Spanish or Hispanic or Latino (circle one): A. yes B. no
82. Race (circle one): A. White B. Black C. Other =
83. Marital Status (circle one): A. single B. married C. living with someone, not married
84. Number of children living at home:
85. When considering your family's income, how difficult is it to get your bills paid:
- A. always difficult
 - B. usually difficult
 - C. sometimes difficult
 - D. rarely difficult
 - E. never difficult
86. How often do you miss work (not counting vacation)? (Choose one answer below)
- A. about one day every week
 - B. about one day every two weeks
 - C. about one day every three weeks
 - D. about one day every month
 - E. about one day every two months or more
87. How long have you worked at this nursing home? _____ years _____ months
88. What is your primary responsibility (circle one): A. certified nurse aide B. other
89. Have there been any major changes at your nursing home? Yes No
90. If yes, what major changes have happened?

THANK YOU very much for your help!

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